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Concord, Nov. 11, 1882.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NINTH ANNUAL NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS

HELD AT MADISON, WIS., AUG. 7-12, 1882.

EDITED BY

A. O. WRIGHT,

RECORDING SECRETARY OF THE CONFERENCE, AND SECRETARY OF THE WISCONSIN STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND REFORM.

MADISON, WIS.:

PUBLISHED FOR THE CONFERENCE,

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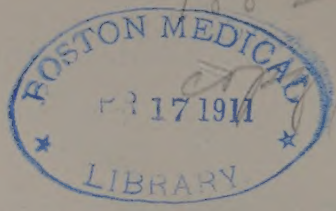

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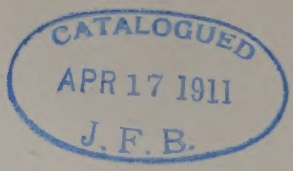

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Madison, Wis.

PREFACE.

The Ninth Annual Conference of Charities and Corrections, met in the state capitol at Madison, Wis., August 7–11, 1882, and in Milwaukee, August 12. Nearly all the State Boards of Charities were represented, and a number of states having no such boards were represented by delegates appointed by the Governors. Two Governors of states were in attendance, and a large number of trustees and superintendents of institutions, and citizens interested in the subjects discussed by this Conference.

Owing to the papers being brief, the discussions were more animated and at greater length than at any previous Conference. The discussions were reported in short-hand, and are here presented with the necessary editing.

The Conference was held later in the summer than usual, and owing to the illness of the reporter, and the consequent slowness with which the short-hand report was copied out, besides delays with the printer and engraver, the proceedings are later than usual in publication.

This is the first year in which engravings have been introduced in the proceedings. According to a vote of the Conference, we print herewith a fine heliotype portrait of Mr. F. B. Sanborn, who as Secretary and President of the Conference, has done so much to make the Conference what it is, and who is one of our ablest and best known workers in the field of public charities. We also furnish three other engravings which are necessary to illustrate the text.

The history of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections is presented in the Annual Address of the President.

The next Conference is to be held at Louisville, Ky., and the President is Fred. H. Wines, Secretary of the Illinois Board of State Charities, and Statistical Secretary of this Conference.

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ERRATUM.

Page 183, line 31, for "phrenologist" read "penologist." This was twice corrected in proof-reading, but vexatiously appeared in the printed text after all.

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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

Ninth Annual Conference of Charities and Corrections,

HELD AT MADISON, WIS., AUGUST 7–12, 1882.

PART I.

BUSINESS OF THE CONFERENCE.

BUSINESS OF THE CONFERENCE,

WITH SECRETARIES' RECORD OF DISCUSSIONS, ETC.

OPENING SESSION.

MONDAY, August 7, 1882.

The Ninth Annual Conference of Charities and Corrections met in the Assembly Chamber, in the State Capitol, in Madison, Wis., Monday, August 7, 1882, at 8 P. M., together with a large audience of Madison people.

The Conference was called to order by the President, Hon. Andrew E. Elmore, of Wisconsin, and was opened with prayer by Rev. J. H. Crooker, of Madison, Wis. (See page 3.)

The Conference was then welcomed to the state by the Governor, Gen. J. M. Rusk. (See page 4.)

The Conference was addressed by Ex-Governor Lucius Fairchild, of Wisconsin, (see page 6) in the absence of Hon. W. P. Letchworth, of New York, who had been advertised to give an address upon his visits to European institutions, but who was detained by sickness.

The President then gave the annual address (see page 10) upon The Origin and History of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections.

Mr. F. B. Sanborn, ex-president of the Conference, being called on, gave an extemporary address. (See page 16.)

The following committees were appointed:

On the President's Address.— Rev. A. G. Byers, of Ohio; Dr. Chas. S. Hoyt, of New York; Mr. P. Caldwell, of Kentucky; Bishop G. D. Gillespie, of Michigan; Prof. A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin.

Business Committee.— Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts; Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio; Gov. David H. Jerome, of Michigan; Mr. Samuel Allinson, of New Jersey; Hon. H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin.

Committee on Rules.— Col. G. W. Burchard, of Wisconsin; Mr. W. J. Baxter, of Michigan; Judge J. W. Henry, of Missouri; Mr. M. D. Follett, of Ohio; Hon. S. M. Church, of Illinois.

Adjourned to meet in the Senate Chamber at 9:00 A. M.

SECOND SESSION.

TUESDAY MORNING, August 8, 1882.

The Conference was called to order at 9 A. M., and was opened with prayer by Rev. A. G. Byers. (See page 19.)

Mr. F. B. Sanborn, from the Business Committee, reported as follows, and the report was adopted:

REPORT OF THE BUSINESS COMMITTEE.

We present a list of the State Boards of Charities and of similar boards and commissions, with their officers and members.

There are at present in the United States ten State Boards or Commissions, charged with the general oversight of charitable work in the states where they exist. These Boards, named in the order of seniority, are—

1. The Massachusetts Board of State Charities, established in 1863; consolidated with the State Board of Health in 1879.

2. The New York State Board of Charities, established in 1867.

3. The Ohio Board of State Charities, established in 1867; reorganized in 1876, and in 1880.

4. The Rhode Island Board of State Charities and Corrections, established in 1869.

10. The Kansas Board of Trustees of State Charitable Institutions, established in 1875.

5. The Pennsylvania Board of Commissioners of Public Charities, established in 1869.

6. The Illinois Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities, established in 1869.

7. The Wisconsin State Board of Charities and Reform, established in 1871.

8. The Michigan State Board of Corrections and Charities, established in 1871.

9. The Connecticut State Board of Charities, established in 1873; reorganized in 1881.

A special organization has existed as a State Board in New York since 1847 — the Commissioners of Emigration. There is also a State Prison Commission in Massachusetts and in Connecticut, and a State Board of Supervision of Charitable, Reformatory and Penal Institutions in Wisconsin.

The present officers and members of the State Boards are as follows. The officers of the several boards who are not members are in brackets:

MASSACHUSETTS. (Term of Office, Five Years.)

Thomas Talbot, Billerica, *Chairman;* Chas. F. Donnelly, Boston, *Secretary;* Edward Hitchcock, M. D., Amherst; Robert T. Davis, M. D., Fall River; John C. Hoadley, Lawrence; Ezra Parmenter, M. D., Cambridge; Mrs. Clara T. Leonard, Springfield; Alfred Hosmer, M. D., George P. Carter, Cambridge. [Dr. H. B. Wheelwright, Newburyport, *Superintendent of Out-Door Poor;* S. C. Wrightington, Fall River, *Superintendent of In-Door Poor;* F. B. Sanborn, Concord, *Inspector of Charities;* H. P. Walcott, M. D., Cambridge, *Health Officer.*]

NEW YORK. (Term of Office, Eight Years.)

William P. Letchworth, Buffalo, *President;* John C. Devereux, Utica, *Vice-President;* Mrs. C. R. Lowell, No. 120 East Thirtieth Street, New York; Wm. Rhinelander Stewart, 99 Madison Avenue, New York; John J. Milhan, M. D., 41 Lafayette Place, New York; Ripley Ropes, 40 Pierrepont Street, Brooklyn; John H. Van Antwerp, Albany; Miss Sarah M. Carpenter, Poughkeepsie; Samuel F. Miller, Franklin, Delaware County; Edward W. Foster, Potsdam, St. Lawrence County; Oscar Craig, Rochester. *Ex-officio* members: The Lieutenant-Governor; Secretary of State; Comptroller; and Attorney-General. [Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, Albany, *Secretary;* James O. Fanning, Albany, *Assistant Secretary.*]

OHIO. (Term of Office, Three Years.)

The Governor, *President, ex-officio;* John W. Andrews, Columbus; R. Brinkerhoff, Mansfield; Joseph Perkins, Cleveland; Carl Boesel, New Bremen; M. D. Carrington, Toledo; W. H. Neff, Cincinnati. [Rev. A. G. Byers, Columbus, *Secretary.*]

RHODE ISLAND. (Term of Office, Six Years.)

George I. Chace, Providence, *Chairman;* William W. Chapin, Providence, *Secretary;* Stephen R. Weeden, Providence; Job Kenyon, M. D., Warwick; Jas. M. Pendleton, Westerly; Alfred B. Chadsey, Wickford; Lewis B. Smith, Barrington; Thomas Coggeshall, Newport; William H. Hopkins, Providence.

PENNSYLVANIA. (Term of Office, Five Years.)

Mahlon H. Dickinson, Philadelphia, *President;* James S. Biddle, Philadelphia; George Bullock, West Conshohocken, Montgomery County; Thos. Beaver, Danville; Gen. W. H. H. Davis, Doylestown; Lewis Peterson, Jr., Allegheny; John W. Chalfant, Allegheny. [Diller Luther, Reading, *General Agent.*]

ILLINOIS. (Term of Office, Five Years.)

G. S. Robinson, Sycamore, *President;* J. C. Corbus, Mendota; J. M. Gould, Moline; Dr. F. B. Haller, Vandalia; William A. Grimshaw, Pittsfield. [F. H. Wines, Springfield, *Secretary.*]

WISCONSIN. (Term of Office, Five Years.)

Andrew E. Elmore, Fort Howard, *President;* William W. Reed, M. D., Jefferson, *Vice-President;* Hiram H. Giles, Madison; J. H. Vivian, M. D., Mineral Point; Mrs. E. B. Fairbanks, Milwaukee. [Prof. A. O. Wright, Madison, *Secretary.*]

MICHIGAN. (Term of Office, Six Years.)

Rt. Rev. George D. Gillespie, Grand Rapids, *Chairman;* The Governor, *ex-officio;* E. H. Van Deusen, M. D., Kalamazoo; P. B. Loomis, Jackson; John J. Wheeler, E. Saginaw. [W. J. Baxter, Lansing, *Secretary.*]

CONNECTICUT. (Term of Office, Indefinite.)

Willis R. Austin, Norwich, *Chairman;* Miss Hannah L. Ripley, Norwich; J. Rutledge McNary, Hartford; Dr. William H. Hotchkiss, New Haven; Mrs. Augusta C. Pease, Hartford, *Secretary.*

KANSAS. (Term of Office, Three Years.)

Edwin Knowles, Sabetha, *President;* C. E. Faulkner, Salina, *Secretary;* A. T. Sharpe, Ottawa, *Treasurer;* J. M. Hogan, Emporia; C. K. Mitchell, Gunda Springs.

The Massachusetts Prison Commission. as reorganized in 1879, consists of five members who hold office for five years; its Secretary is not a member of the Board. The present members are: — Thomas Parsons, Brookline, *Chairman;* Paul A. Chadbourne, Amherst; William Roberts, Waltham; Mrs. Ellen C. Johnson, 78 Temple St., Boston; Miss Emma F. Cary, 92 Brattle St., Cambridge. [Warren F. Spalding, Boston, *Secretary.*]

The Connecticut Prison Commission consists of seven members, who hold office for three years. Francis Wayland, New Haven, *President;* Thomas McManus, Hartford, *Secretary;* Henry T. Sperry, Hartford; John H. Leeds, New Haven; Lewis Whitmore, Rocky Hill; Nathan M. Belden, Wilton; Dr. Cyrus B. Newton, Stefford Springs.

The Wisconsin State Board of Supervision, established in 1881, consists of five members, who hold office for five years; the present members are: Col. George W. Burchard, Jefferson; Gen. James Bintliff, Lafayette; L. A. Proctor, Milwaukee; Charles Luling, Manitowoc; Charles D. Parker, St. Croix. [D. S. Comly, *Secretary.*]

As far as the Business Committee are informed there has been no addition to this list since the Conference met a year ago, nor has any board been abolished.

We submit a partial list of members of the Conference present, to be completed as others arrive. (See printed list of members.)

The business of the Conference has been so well arranged by the Standing Committees, and the officers of the Conference, as set forth in the printed programme, that the Business Committee have no change to suggest, but recommend that it be substantially followed.

The committee would recommend that fifteen minutes be allowed each state to report in, and if there is more than one delegate from a state to report, these delegates shall arrange among themselves how that time shall be divided.

A motion was adopted declaring the recommendation of the committee as the sense of the Conference.

The Committee on the Work of Boards of State Charities having the floor for the morning, Bishop G. D. Gillespie, of Michigan, for that Committee, read a letter of Judge G. D. Robinson, of Illinois, its chairman, expressing his regret that he could not be present owing to his brother's death, and expressing himself substantially as in his report of last year upon the work accomplished by Boards of State Charities.

Prof. Geo. I. Chace, of Rhode Island, read a paper on the Proper Functions of Boards of State Charities and Corrections (see page 19), which was discussed by Rev. M. McG. Dana, D. D., of Minnesota; by Rev. A. G. Byers, of Ohio; by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts; by Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio; by Hon. D. W. Ingersoll, of Minnesota; by Prof A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin; by Hon. C. B. Lockwood, of Ohio; by Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York, and by the writer of the paper. (See pages 24–36.)

Miss Jennie McCowan, M. D., of Iowa, read a paper upon the Prevention of Insanity (page 36), which was discussed by Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, of the District of Columbia; by Dr. J. W. Scott, of Ohio; by Rev. Mr. Hutchins, of Minnesota; by Rabbi S. H. Sonnerschein, of Missouri; by Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio; by Prof. A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin; by Dr. Clark Gapen, of Wisconsin, and by Dr. J. W. Walk, of Pennsylvania. (See pages 43 to 51.)

The subject was laid upon the table, to be taken up later, and the Conference then adjourned, after receiving invitations to visit the State Library and the Historical Society's Library.

THIRD SESSION.

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, August 8, 1882.

Col. G. W. Burchard, of Wisconsin, for the Committee on Rules, reported as follows:

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RULES.

The Committee on Rules respectfully submit the following rules for the guidance of the business of the Conference, and recommend their adoption:

1. Reports from states sending delegates shall not exceed fifteen minutes, but this time may be divided among the delegates as they may agree.

2. Discussions upon reports and papers shall be limited to thirty minutes, provided that at the expiration of that time the person making a report or reading a paper shall be permitted to occupy five minutes in closing the discussion thereon.

3. Speakers shall be limited to five minutes, and shall not speak twice upon the same subject until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.

4. Each speaker may be required to announce the particular report or paper which he rises to discuss, and to confine his remarks thereto, but with liberty to discuss successively, within his time, several reports, papers or subjects.

5. Only accredited members of the Conference shall be permitted to vote upon resolutions or other business coming before it for consideration.

6. Regular sessions of the Conference shall be held at 9:30 A. M., 2:30 P. M., and 7:30 P. M.

On motion of Prof. A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin, it was resolved that a committee of one from each state represented be appointed by the Chair to recommend the place, time and organization of the next Conference.

The following were appointed by the President as said committee:

Prof. A. O. Wright, Wisconsin; Mrs. J. G. Dickerson, Maine; Mr. F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts; Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, New York; Rev. J. L. Milligan, Pennsylvania; Mr. Samuel Allinson, New Jersey; Dr. Horace Wardner, Illinois; Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, Ohio; Dr. W. H. Leonard, Minnesota; Dr. Jennie McCowen, Iowa; Mr. W. J. Baxter, Michigan; Judge J. W. Henry, Missouri; Rev. Marcus Lane, California; Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, District of Columbia; Mr. P. Caldwell, Kentucky; Mr. J. H. Mills, North Carolina; Judge A. V. Williams, Arkansas; Rev. A. Bessonies, Indiana.

Reports for states were then received as follows:

Report of Massachusetts, Mr. F. B. Sanborn, (see p. 52).

Report of Maine, by Mrs. E. A. Dickerson (see p. 59), and Rev. J. K. Mason (see p. 63).

Report of New York, by Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, (see p. 65).

Report of Pennsylvania, by Dr. Henry Warner, (see p. 66); Dr. J. W. Walk, (see p. 67), and Rev. J. L. Milligan, (see p. 68.)

Report of Ohio, by Mr. W. H. Neff, (see p. 69), with brief discussion (p. 71).

Report of Michigan, by Mr. W. J. Baxter, (see p. 72), with brief discussion, (see p. 79).

The discussion upon the Prevention of Insanity, laid over from the morning session, was taken up and discussed by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts (see p. 82); by Rev. Dr. Dana, of Minnesota (see p. 83); by Prof. A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin (see p. 85); by Dr. J. H. Vivian, of Wisconsin (see p. 87); by Dr. J. W. Walk, of Pennsylvania (see pp. 88 and 89); by Hon. H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin (see p. 89); by Hon. M. D. Follett, of Ohio (see p. 90); by Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio (see p. 90); and by Mr. F. H. Wines, of Illinois (see p. 92).

The Conference then adjourned till evening.

FOURTH SESSION.

TUESDAY EVENING, August 8, 1882.

The Conference was called to order in the Assembly Chamber at 7:30 P. M., in the presence of a large audience.

The Committee on Pauperism having the floor, Hon. H. H. Giles, as chairman of the committee, presented a paper by Mr. C. S. Watkins, of Iowa, on Pauperism and its Prevention, and in that gentleman's absence, read it. (See p. 94.)

Hon. H. H. Giles then read a paper, prepared by himself, on County Care of Insane Paupers (see p. 97), which was discussed by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts (see p. 102); by Rev.

A. G. Byers, of Ohio (see p. 104); by Dr. David Rogers, of New York (see p. 105); by Mr. F. H. Wines, of Illinois (see p. 106 and p. 112); by Mr. L. P. Alden, of Michigan (see p. 110); by Dr. W. J. Scott, of Ohio (see p. 110); by Dr. J. W. Walk, of Pennsylvania (see p. 111); by Prof. A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin (see p. 113); by Mrs. W. P. Lynde, of Wisconsin (see p. 116); by the President of the Conference (see p. 118); by Mr. W. H. Neff, of Ohio (see p. 118).

The Conference then adjourned till morning.

FIFTH SESSION.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, August 9, 1882.

The Conference met in the Senate Chamber, and was opened with prayer by Rev. Dr. Dana, of Minnesota. (See p. 120.)

The report of the committee on Preventive Work among Children, in the absence of the chairman, Hon. W. P. Letchworth, of New York, was read by Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York. (See p. 121.)

A paper by Mr. J. W. Skinner, of the New York Childrens' Aid Society, was read, in his absence, by Bishop G. D. Gillespie. (See p. 122.)

A paper by Mr. Eldridge T. Gerry, President of the New York society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, upon the Relation of Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children to Child Saving Work, was read, in his absence, by Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio. (See p. 127.)

A paper by Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, of California, upon the Kindergarten as a Child Saving Work, was read, in her absence, by Mrs. Ex-Governor Beveridge, of Illinois.

This paper was discussed by Col. Gardiner Tufts, of Massachusetts (see pp. 138 and 146); by Mr. L. P. Alden, of Michigan (see pp. 139 and 140); by Rabbi S. H. Sonnenschein, of Missouri (see p. 140); by Dr. David Rogers, of New York (see pp. 140 and 143); by Mr. J. H. Mills, of North Carolina (see

pp. 141 and 149); by Mr. E. W. Chase, of Minnesota (see p. 142); by Dr. W. J. Scott, of Ohio (see p. 142); by Hon. C. B. Lockwood, of Ohio (see p. 144); by Dr. Philip G. Gillett, of Illinois (see p. 144); by Mr. W. J. Baxter, of Michigan (see p. 145); by Mr. Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois (see p. 146); by the President (see p. 147); by Dr. J. W. Walk, of Pennsylvania (see p. 148); by Rev. Dr. Dana, of Minnesota (see p. 150); by Hon. H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin (see pp. 152 and 154); by Mr. Henry J. Dodge, of Illinois (see p. 153); by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts (see p. 156); by Dr. Chas. S. Hoyt, of New York (see p. 157).

The subject was laid on the table till afternoon, and the Conference then adjourned till afternoon.

SIXTH SESSION.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, August 9, 1882.

Reports from states were received as follows:

Report for North Carolina, by Mr. J. H. Mills. (See p. 257.)

Report for Missouri, by Judge J. W. Henry (see p. 158), and by Bishop Robertson. (See p. 160.)

Report for Illinois, by Mr. F. H. Wines. (See p. 158.)

Report of Kentucky, by R. C. Davis.*

Report of Minnesota, by Dr. C. N. Hewitt.*

Report of California, by Rev. Marcus Lane. (See p. 163).

Report of District of Columbia, by Mrs. S. A. Spencer. (See p. 164.)

Report of Iowa, by Dr. Jennie McCowen (see p. 169), and by Mrs. L. D. Lewelling. (See p. 172.)

Report of Indiana, by Rev. August Bessonies. (See p. 174.)

The committee on the President's Address reported as follows, which report was adopted:

Resolved, That the Recording Secretary chosen at this Conference be authorized to purchase, at the expense of the Conference, a record book in

* The Secretary has been unable to obtain these reports for publication.

which the regular proceedings of this Conference and all future Conferences, together with a complete register of names and residences of delegates from states, and representatives of Charitable or Correctional institutions in attendance thereat shall be duly recorded.

Resolved, That the address of President A. E. Elmore be adopted by this Conference as a record of past proceedings of the National Conference of Charities, and given its proper place in the permanent records.

Resolved, That the annual report of the Statistical Secretary shall, when approved by the Conference, be made a part of the permanent record of its proceedings.

Resolved, That the Recording Secretary be directed to collect the printed volumes of proceedings heretofore published, and have them bound in durable form, and kept on file by him and his successors, together with all subsequent reports, as the property of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections.

Resolved, That expenses incurred in providing for the objects contemplated in the foregoing resolutions, be provided for by an assessment upon the several organized State Boards of Charities, and that a standing committee on Ways and Means, consisting of one member from each board, shall be nominated to this Conference by the respective boards, their action to be submitted for approval to the action of the several boards represented at an Annual Conference.

A. G. BYERS,
CHAS. S. HOYT,
GEO. D. GILLESPIE,
P. CALDWELL,
A. O. WRIGHT.

Resolutions offered by Rev. Dr. Dana, of Minnesota, in regard to the Childrens' Aid Society, were referred to the Business Committee, who reported as a substitute therefor that the secretary be directed to call the attention of Mr. C. S. Brace, of the Childrens' Aid Society, to the discussion in relation to this society in the proceedings of the Conference when printed. The substitute, after some discussion, was adopted.

An invitation to visit the Industrial School for Boys, at Waukesha, and an invitation to visit the Industrial School for Girls, at Milwaukee, were both accepted with thanks.

The Conference then adjourned till evening.

SEVENTH SESSION.

WEDNESDAY EVENING, August 9, 1882.

The Conference met in the Senate Chamber at 8 P. M., with a large number of spectators present.

The committee on Crimes and Penalties having the floor for the evening session, reported two papers as follows:

Rev. J. L. Milligan, of Pennsylvania, read a paper on the Control of Vicious and Criminally Inclined Females (see p. 176), which was discussed by Mr. Z. R. Brockway, of New York (see p. 184); by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts (see p. 185); by Mr. Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois (see pp. 187 and 188); by Mrs. Ex-Gov. Beveridge, of Illinois (see p. 187).

Col. G. W. Burchard, of Wisconsin, read a paper upon Indeterminate Sentences a Necessity (see p. 189), which was discussed by Mr. Z. R. Brockway, of New York (see p. 196), and by Mr. Henry J. Dodge, of Illinois (see p. 201).

The Conference then adjourned till morning.

EIGHTH SESSION.

THURSDAY MORNING, August 10, 1882.

The Conference was opened with prayer by Rabbi S. H. Sonnenschein, of Missouri (see p. 203).

The following resolution was adopted upon motion of Rev. J. G. Riheldaffer, D. D., of Minnesota:

Resolved, That it is the duty of the State, to secure as far as possible, in her reformatories, the facilities for teaching every child who is detained in them to sufficient age, some trade or mechanical art, so that when they go out they may be prepared to earn an honest living.

At the request of Dr. W. J. Scott, of Ohio, Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, spoke in relation to the Low Rate of Infant Mortality under the new management in Massachusetts. (See p. 204.)

The report of the committee on the Education of the Blind, sent by the chairman, in his absence was read by Prof. G. L. Smead, of Ohio. (See p. 207.)

A paper on the Education of Blind and Deaf Mutes in one Institution, prepared by Prof. P. Lane, of Louisiana, was read, in his absence, by Prof. J. J. Dow, of Minnesota. (See p. 209.)

A paper on Institutions for the Blind a Proper Part of Public Education, prepared by Prof. B. B. Huntoon, of Kentucky, was read, in his absence, by Prof. J. L. Noyes, of Minnesota. (See p. 212.)

A paper on Hindrances to the Welfare and Progress of State Institutions, prepared by Mr. M. Anagnos, of Massachusetts, was read, in his absence, by Mrs. A. D. Lord, of New York. (See p. 215.)

These papers were then discussed by Prof. J. L. Noyes, of Minnesota (see p. 218); by Dr. J. W. Walk, of Pennsylvania (see p. 218); by Prof. Geo. L. Smead, of Ohio (see pp. 219 and 225); by Prof. J. J. Dow (see p. 219); by Prof. J. W. Swiler, of Wisconsin (see p. 220); by Prof. P. Gillett, of Illinois (see p. 221); by Prof. A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin (see p. 222); by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts (see p. 223); by Rev. Marcus Lane, of California (see p. 223); by Rabbi S. H. Sonnenschein, of Missouri (see p. 224).

According to the recommendation of the Business Committee, the question box was passed and questions were received and answered. (See p. 227.)

The Conference then adjourned till afternoon.

NINTH SESSION.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, August 10, 1882.

The question of County Care for Insane Paupers was further discussed by Hon. H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin (see p. 231); by Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio (see p. 233); by Bishop G. D. Gillespie, of Michigan (see p. 233); by Dr. David Rogers, of

New York (see p. 234); by Governor Jerome, of Michigan (see p. 234); by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts (see p. 236); and by Mr. W. H. Neff, of Ohio (see p. 240).

The following reports from states were then presented to the Conference:

Report of New Jersey, by Samuel Allinson. (See p. 241.)

Report of Connecticut, by the State Board of Charities. (See p. 247.)

Report of the District of Columbia, by Rev. A. Floridus Steele.* (See p. 251.)

Report for Wisconsin, by Prof. A. O. Wright. (See p. 253.)

A discussion followed upon the Care of the Chronic Insane and some other matters, participated in by Dr. David Rogers, of New York (see p. 256); by Hon. H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin (see p. 256); by Bishop Robertson, of Missouri (see p. 257); by Mr. J. H. Mills, of North Carolina (see p. 257); and by Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York (see p. 258).

The committee on Time, Place and Organization of the next Conference reported as follows:

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON TIME, PLACE AND ORGANIZATION OF THE NEXT CONFERENCE.

The committee on the Time and Place of the next Conference and its organization, respectfully report:

Place for the next Conference, St. Louis, Missouri; Time of meeting to be left with the President and Secretaries of the Conference, in consultation with the local committee.

For President, Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois; For Recording Secretary, A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin; For Honorary Secretary, F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts.

For Secretaries, Rev. J. L. Milligan, of Pennsylvania; Dr. C. S. Hoyt, of New York, and Dr. Henry C. Prentiss, of Massachusetts.

For Corresponding Secretaries, Rev. J. K. Mason, Maine; Dr. J. P. Bancroft, New Hampshire; Samuel J. Allen, Vermont; Col. Gardner Tufts, Massachusetts; Prof. Geo. I. Chace, Rhode Island; Geo. E. Howe, Connecticut; Hon. W. P. Letchworth, New York; Dr. Diller Luther, Penn-

* Owing to his detention on the road by sickness, the report was not read at all, and was not presented to the Conference till Friday evening when it was ordered printed. It is inserted here with the other reports.

sylvania; A. S. Meyrick, New Jersey; Rev. A. G. Byers, Ohio; Rev. O. C. McCulloch, Indiana; Dr. J. C. Corbus, Illinois; W. J. Baxter, Michigan; Hon. H. H. Giles, Wisconsin; Dr. W. H. Leonard, Minnesota; C. S. Watkins, Iowa; C. E. Faulkner, Kansas; T. N. Haskell, Colorado; Bishop C. F. Robertson, Missouri; P. Caldwell, Kentucky; J. H. Mills, North Carolina; F. L. Haralson, Georgia; Dudley Wooten, Texas; Charles T. Briggs, Virginia; C. S. Griffith, Maryland; Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, California; Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, District of Columbia.

The report was unanimously adopted except as to the place of next meeting. After a long and spirited contest between Louisville and St. Louis, the Conference adjourned till evening without reaching a decision,

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TENTH SESSION.

THURSDAY EVENING, August 10, 1882.

The question of place of the next meeting was taken up, and, after renewed discussion, was decided in favor of Louisville, Kentucky.

Dr. David Rogers, from the committee on Immigration, reported that the committee had held several meetings and had taken measures to secure legislation from Congress to prevent the importation of persons of the criminal or dependent classes from European cities, and had succeeded in securing such legislation embodied in the following bill, which had just received the president's approval:

[PUBLIC — No. 195.]

AN ACT to Regulate Immigration.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there shall be levied, collected, and paid a duty of fifty cents for each and every passenger not a citizen of the United States who shall come by steam or sail vessel from a foreign port to any port within the United States. The said duty shall be paid to the collector of customs of the port to which such passenger shall come, or if there be no collector at such port, then to the collector of customs nearest thereto, by the master, owner, agent, or consignee of every such vessel, within

twenty-four hours after the entry thereof into such port. The money thus collected shall be paid into the United States Treasury, and shall constitute a fund to be called the immigrant fund, and shall be used, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, to defray the expenses of regulating immigration under this act, and for the care of immigrants arriving in the United States, for the relief of such as are in distress, and for the general purposes and expenses of carrying this act into effect. The duty imposed by this section shall be a lien upon the vessels which shall bring such passengers into the United States, and shall be a debt in favor of the United States against the owner or owners of such vessels; and the payment of such duty may be enforced by any legal or equitable remedy. *Provided*, That no greater sum shall be expended for the purposes hereinbefore mentioned, at any port, than shall have been collected at such port.

SEC. 2.— That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby charged with the duty of executing the provisions of this act and with supervision over the business of immigration to the United States, and for that purpose he shall have power to enter into contracts with such State commission, board, or officers as may be designated for that purpose by the governor of any state to take charge of the local affairs of immigration in the ports within said State, and to provide for the support and relief of such immigrants therein landing as may fall into distress or need public aid, under the rules and regulations to be prescribed by said Secretary; and it shall be the duty of such State commission, board, or officers so designated, to examine into the condition of passengers arriving at the ports within such State in any ship or vessel, and for that purpose all or any of such commissioners or officers, or such other person or persons as they shall appoint, shall be authorized to go on board of and through any such ship or vessel; *and if on such examination there shall be found among such passengers any convict, lunatic, idiot, or any person unable to take care of himself or herself without becoming a public charge, they shall report the same in writing to the collector of such port, and such persons shall not be permitted to land.*

SEC. 3.— That the Secretary of the Treasury shall establish such regulations and rules and issue from time to time such instructions not inconsistent with law as he shall deem best calculated to protect the United States and immigrants into the United States from fraud and loss, and for carrying out the provisions of this act and the immigration laws of the United States; and he shall prescribe all forms of bonds, entries, and other papers to be used under and in the enforcement of the various provisions of this act.

The committee on Building Plans for Public Institutions having the floor for the rest of the evening reported through their chairman, Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio (see p. 262), and also presented a paper by Walter Channing, M. D., of Massachu-

setts, upon Building Plans for a Criminal Lunatic Asylum (see p. 266).

Mr. Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois, then addressed the Conference on Detached Wards for the care of the Insane (see p. 268), and R. S. Dewey, M. D., Superintendent of the Kankakee Hospital for the Insane, with the aid of diagrams upon a blackboard, explained the construction and management of the institution, which is upon the cottage or detached plan (see p. 273).

Rev. A. G. Byers, of Ohio, then explained the Ohio plan for jails, with the aid of a blackboard (see p. 277).

On motion of Mr. Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois, the Publication committee were directed to procure a heliotype of Mr. Fred. B. Sanborn, as a frontispiece to the next volume of the proceedings.

It was resolved that the thanks of the Conference be extended to the Governor of Wisconsin, to the citizens of Madison, to the press of Madison, Milwaukee and Chicago, and to the President and Secretary of the Conference.

The Conference then adjourned.

FRIDAY MORNING AND AFTERNOON.

Friday morning and afternoon were used in visiting the Wisconsin Industrial School for Boys, at Waukesha, and the Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls, at Milwaukee.

CLOSING SESSION.

The closing session was held in Plymouth Church, Milwaukee.

The meeting was opened with prayer by Rev. Dr. Dana, of Minnesota.

Dr. Charles A. Hoyt, of New York, from the committee on Time, Place and Organization of the next Conference, reported a list of Standing Committees, which were adopted, as follows:

On the Work of Boards of Charities.— G. D. Gillespie, Grand Rapids, Michigan; Mrs. Chas. R. Lowell, New York City; W. W. Reed, M. D.; Jefferson, Wis.; George I. Chace, Providence, R. I.; Lewis Peterson, Jr., Alleghany, Penn.; John W. Andrews, Columbus, O.; Charles F. Coffin, Richmond Ind.

On the Organization of Charities in Cities.—Oscar C. McCulloch, Indianapolis, Ind.; C. B. Lockwood, Cleveland, Ohio; Levi L. Barbour, Detroit, Mich.; Gustavus E. Gordon, Milwaukee, Wis.; Chas. W. Wendte, Newport, R. I.; C. D. Kellogg, New York City; Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, Washington, D. C.; Rev. E. R. Donehoo, Pittsburg, Pa.; Rev. S. H. Gurteen, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. E. A. Dickerson, Belfast, Maine, Thos. P. Jacobs, Louisville, Kentucky.

On Preventive Work Among Children.— W. P. Letchworth, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. Clara T. Leonard, Springfield, Mass.; Mrs. John L. Beveridge, Evanston, Ill.; P. Caldwell, Louisville, Ky.; Henry E. Burton, Hartford, Conn.; Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, San Francisco, Cal.; Lyman P. Alden, Coldwater, Mich.; Mrs. W. P. Lynde, Milwaukee, Wis.; W. H. Neff, Cincinnati, Ohio; J. H. Mills, Oxford, N. C.; Rabbi S. H. Sonnenschein, St. Louis, Mo.; Very Rev. August Bessonies, Indianapolis, Indiana; Mrs. Florence Kelly, Philadelphia, Pa.

On Crimes and Penalties.—Z. R. Brockway, Elmira, N. Y.; G. W. Burchard, Fort Atkinson, Wis.; Francis Wayland, New Haven, Conn.; J. W. Henry, Jefferson, Mo.; R. Brinkerhoff, Mansfield, O.; Mrs. E. B. Fairbanks, Milwaukee, Wis.; Eliza M. Mosher, South Framingham, Mass.; A. H. Young, Minneapolis, Minn.; Oscar Craig, Rochester, N. Y.; M. D. Follett, Marietta, O.; Henry A. Warner, Pittsburg, Penn.; O. Huse, Evanston, Ill.

On Preventive Medical Charities.— James W. Walk, M. D., Philadelphia, Penn.; J. H. Milham, M. D., New York City; P. S. Conner, Cincinnati, Ohio; Samuel H. Green, M. D., Boston, Mass.; Roswell G. Park, Chicago Ill.;

On Building Plans for Public Institutions.— A. G. Byers, Columbus, Ohio; Samuel F. Miller, North Franklin, N. Y.; J. G. Park, M. D., Worcester, Mass.; E. S. Wright, Alleghany, Penn.; James Bintliff, Darlington, Wis.; R. S. Dewey, M. D., Kankakee, Ill.; R. B. Stanton, Maysville, Ky.

On Provisions for the Chronic Insane.— J. W. Ward, M. D., Trenton, N. J.; Stephen Smith, M. D., New York City; H. H. Giles, Madison, Wis.; Walter Channing, M. D., Boston, Mass.; J. H. Reed, M. D., Dixmount, Penn.; Miss Jennie McCowen, Davenport, Iowa; Horace Wardner, M. D., Anna, Ill.

On Education of the Deaf and Dumb.— J. L. Noyes, Faribault, Minn.; Philip G. Gillet, Jacksonville, Ill.; J. W. Swiler, Delavan, Wis.; Miss Harriet B. Rogers, Northampton, Mass.; J. L. Peet, New York City; Rev. J. Brown, Pittsburg, Pa.; J. C. Devereux, Utica, N. Y.; Prof. Dudley, Danville, Ky.

Local Committee on Arrangements for Next Meeting.— T. C. Tucker, Thomas P. Jacob, D. P. Faulds, T. L. Jefferson and J. Heim, of Louisville, Ky.

Dr. Hoyt moved that a Local Committee of Arrangements be associated with the officers of the Conference in fixing the time of the next Conference and making local arrangements, which motion was carried, and appointments made as above noted.

Mr. F. B. Sanborn, from the Business Committee, reported resolutions, as follows:

Resolved, That we heartily express our sense of the liberality and kindness that have made this day one, to us, of great pleasure and profit, and that the officers and managers of the Wisconsin Industrial School for Boys, at Waukesha, and of the Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls, at Milwaukee, while they have shown us a most generous hospitality, have made us debtors by the lessons we have learned in visiting these admirable institutions.

Resolved, That the Conference of Charities appreciate and desire to recognize the liberality of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railway Co. in sending our members and delegates in special cars from Madison to Milwaukee, and at the time and in the manner which was most convenient to the Conference; and that the thanks of the Conference are hereby tendered, also, to this Railway Company, and to the Chicago & Northwestern, and to the Chicago, Minneapolis & Omaha Railway for reduced fares to our delegates on their lines.

F. B. Sanborn: I desire to say a word in regard to the resolution thanking the Railroad Company for their favors, that in

all the experience of our Conference, extending over nine years, we have never received such courtesies as we have to-day received from the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Company. We desired to hold the last session of the Conference here, and to visit the Reform School, at Waukesha, on our way here from Madison. To have come at an earlier hour, I believe, would have been more convenient for the Railroad Company. At Waukesha we were left near the Industrial School and not at the city station; and so the Conference has been met in its wishes and its convenience consulted almost without our expressing a wish, and for these things we desire to make special acknowledgement to the Company ; and also to other Railroad Companies for their usual reduction in fares to the members of the Conference.

We shall leave a more extended expression of our grateful satisfaction for what we have seen in the city of Milwaukee. To most of the members of this Conference this is our first visit here. We knew of the reputation of Milwaukee and its Industrial School, but I think I express the sentiments of all when I say that what we have seen and experienced has far exceeded our expectations. When we remember the remarkable growth of this city of a few years, a city which will compare most favorably with the oldest cities of the country in wealth, in its active business streets, beautiful avenues, and fine residences, and finally for the unparalled excellence of its Industrial School for Girls, and remembering the difficulties with which it has had to struggle to attain its eminent position during its short period of existence, I think I express the unanimous voice of this Conference on this subject when I say we shall leave your city delighted beyond expression with what we have seen here.

On motion, the resolutions were adopted.

O. Huse, Illinois, moved that copies of these resolutions be presented to those in favor of whom they are reported.

Adopted.

Rev. G. E. Gordon, of Wisconsin, from the committee on Organization of Charities in Cities, then presented a paper upon

Charity Organizations a new Philosophy of Philanthropy. (See p. 282.)

This was discussed by Hon. C. B. Lockwood, of Ohio (see p. 282); by Prof. A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin (see p. 284); by Dr. W. J. Scott, of Ohio (see p. 284.)

The President then announced that there was opportunity for miscellaneous remarks, and brief addresses were made by Mr. J. H. Mills, of North Carolina (see p. 286); Mr. Z. R. Brockway, of New York (see p. 287); by Dr. J. W. Walk, of Pennsylvania (see p. 287); by Rev. G. E. Gordon, of Wisconsin (see p. 288.)

The business committee reported as follows:

REPORT OF THE BUSINESS COMMITTEE ON PUBLICATION OF THE PROCEEDINGS.

The Business Committee would report on the subject of publication of the proceedings of the Conference as follows:

The proceedings of the Conference of 1875, 1877, 1878, 1879, 1880 and 1881, may be obtained at G. P. Putnam's Sons', New York; Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati; West & Co., Milwaukee, and A. Williams & Co., Boston.

The committee recommend that the four Secretaries of the Conference, Prof. A. O. Wright, of Madison, Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, Albany, N. Y., Rev. John L. Milligan, Allegheny, Pa., Dr. Henry C. Prentiss, Boston, be a Publishing Committee for the proceedings of 1882, and that they be requested to print 2,000 copies. and as many more as the subscriptions received before September 1st may justify.

These Secretaries will also furnish copies of the proceedings of past years to such as will pay the price mentioned in the circular which they will issue before the proceedings of 1882 are published.

F. B. SANBORN, *Chairman.*

MILWAUKEE, August 12, 1882.

The report of Rev. A. F. Steele, delegate from the District of Columbia, was received and referred to the Publication Committee.

The following resolution was offered by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, and adopted:

Resolved, That the heartiest thanks are due and are offered to the Wisconsin State Board of Charities and Reform for the complete arrangements

made by them for the session of the Ninth Annual Conference of Charities and Corrections, at Madison, Waukesha and Milwaukee, and especially to our retiring President, Hon. Andrew E. Elmore, of Wisconsin.

Closing addresses were then made by Mr. F. H. Wines, the President elect (see p. 290), and by Hon. Andrew E. Elmore, the retiring President (see p. 292).

The Conference then adjourned to meet at Louisville, Kentucky, at the call of the officers elect.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

Ninth Annual Conference of Charities and Corrections,

HELD AT MADISON, AUGUST 7–11, 1882.

PART II.

ADDRESSES, PAPERS AND DEBATES.

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Addresses, Papers and Debates.

OPENING SESSION.

MONDAY EVENING, August 7, 1882.

The Ninth Annual Conference of Charities and Corrections met in the Assembly Chamber of the State Capitol, at Madison, Wisconsin, Monday evening, August 7th, at 8 P. M., and was called to order by the President, Hon. Andrew E. Elmore, of Fort Howard, Wisconsin, who said:

Ladies and Gentlemen: The Ninth Annual Conference of the National Association of Charities and Corrections is called to meet here this evening. It will be opened with prayer by Rev. J. H. Crooker, of this city.

Rev. J. H. CROOKER: Let us pray:

Almighty God, our heavenly Father, in whom we live and move and have our being, we thank thee for life and its infinite blessings. We thank thee for the love thou hast put in man's heart for his brother. Here we are assembled this night from all parts of this great nation, thy servants engaged in the noblest mission, to aid in carrying on thy work of love toward man, and to do thy will; and we pray thee that thou wilt bless all the interests here represented, and that thy blessing, rich and full, may rest upon all these men and women in their labors for suffering humanity. Amen.

PRESIDENT ELMORE: The programme says there is to be an address by Governor Rusk at this time. He would a great deal rather face a battery, as he has often done, than face a crowd like this this evening; but he is the Governor of Wisconsin and always fills the bill, and will do it now. I introduce to you Governor Rusk.

GOVERNOR RUSK came forward and extended a welcome to the Conference, on behalf of the state, as follows:

ADDRESS OF WELCOME BY THE GOVERNOR OF WISCONSIN.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections:

It is a pleasure to me to have the opportunity of bidding welcome to the state of Wisconsin, a body of distinguished citizens gathered from all parts of the nation, for the purpose of consulting and advising together upon the best means of relieving the unfortunate who cannot care for themselves. The value of your work cannot be estimated in dollars, but only by the relief extended to those disabled by misfortune. I believe this conference is one of the very few — and the most important — that assemble in this country, for the high and laudable purpose of devising the best methods to alleviate the weakness and misfortune of the human race. The state of Wisconsin, though young in years, has taken great pains in caring for its unfortunates. The insane, the blind, the deaf and dumb, the poor and the miscreant, all have institutions that we point to with pride, and where we do all in our power to cure the insane, to lead the blind, to teach the deaf and dumb to talk, to assist the poor and show the vicious the error of his ways. But I will not enter into any details. We have a State Board of Charities and Reform, of which your honored president is the worthy president, and they will, no doubt, fully present to this body all the facts in regard to our state institutions. We also have various benevolent institutions, representing the various churches and societies, that do great good; they too have representatives in this body, who will, without doubt, be able to make suggestions of great value to this assembly. I would call the attention of this convention to our national institutions, especially the national asylums and homes for disabled soldiers. We have one of these homes in this state, and it seems to me entirely proper that your organization should study and investigate the working of these institutions. I hope you may be able to visit many of the charitable institutions in this state before leaving, and give us the benefit of your experience and advice. Expressing my fullest confidence in your devotion to the cause in which you are engaged, and believing this assembly will accomplish great good, I extend to you again most cordial welcome to Wisconsin, and to this the capitol city, whose good people appreciate your presence and will, I have no doubt, do all in their power to make it pleasant for you while here.

Mr. Elmore: According to the programme the Hon. W. P. Letchworth, President of the New York State Board of Charities, was expected to be present and address the Confer-

ence at this time upon his recent visit to European Institutions, but he is unable to attend, and Dr. Hoyt, the Secretary of the New York State Board of Charities will tell why he could not come.

DR. CHARLES S. HOYT: *Mr. President:* Mr. Letchworth desired me to explain why he is not present. He is detained on account of sickness. He also desired me to state to the Conference his deep interest in its proceedings and in its success, and his hopes of being present and taking a part in its deliberations during the remainder of his life; and his wish that the reason of his not being present at this Conference may be duly entered on the records. The report and papers from his committee he entrusted to me, and they will be presented in their proper order.

PRESIDENT ELMORE: According to the programme I am the next speaker, but I am not much of a speaker, anyhow; besides, what I intend to say this evening will be dry, relating to the history of this Conference from the beginning, and I don't want anyone to stay a moment and listen to my speech and become weary. I want all the rest to speak first, and then when I begin to speak those who are weary can leave without giving the least offense.

I say this because Governor Fairchild has consented to make a few remarks this evening. I told him I should call on him and he must respond. It is not necessary for me to state to this audience who Governor Fairchild is. He was the first man in the state to volunteer during the late unpleasantness, and his armless coat sleeve shows he was faithful to his country. He has just returned from Spain, where he was United States Minister, after having been previously our Consul at Liverpool and Consul General at Paris.

He was the originator of the Board of Charities and Reform in Wisconsin. In 1870 he recommended to the Legislature of Wisconsin the necessity of such an organization, and the passage of a law establishing the Board of Charities and Reform. The Legislature passed such a law authorizing the Board in 1871. The first woman ever appointed to such an office in the

United States was appointed by him on that Board, and it is very fitting that he should make some remarks on this occasion. We claim that this Conference of Charities and Correction had its origin here, and it is entirely fitting that he should give us a little talk on the subject.

Governor Fairchild will now address you.

GOVERNOR FAIRCHILD: *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:* I am considerably taken aback at being thus forced to the front. At the request of your President I consented to make a few remarks this evening. I will detain you but a few minutes.

I consented to appear before you at all, because from my earliest experience in political matters I came to be a very earnest and hearty worker in the cause in which you are enlisted; and have always felt a deep interest in the cause of charities and reform. It is a pleasure to me now in looking back over the lapse of years, to call to mind the many good workers, men who thought and wrote and labored in this cause. I have felt a deep interest in it since 1870 and 1871, when I urged the Legislature to enact a law looking toward the establishment of a Board of Charities and Reform, and I am glad to see the good work which has been done by the Board. And when in 1871 the law authorized the appointment of a Board, the very first name I thought of for that position was your President, Andrew E. Elmore, and I was pleased beyond expression when he consented to take the position, for I knew he would do his very best, and that is as good as any other man's very best. The establishment of the Board was opposed when first broached in the Legislature, by some good men because they could not see the necessity for having another Board, as we had several then, and they thought it would be merely complimentary to several gentlemen who would fill easy places at the state's expense; but happily the Legislature consented to try the experiment. I have read that during the last ten years some threats have been made to abolish the Board, but I am glad that it still lives, and I have great faith in it. It has done a good work and been a great benefit to the state and to the

afflicted classes. I hope while you are here, as representatives of other portions of our nation you will be able to visit some of our state institutions and see what can be done, and what we are doing to alleviate the condition of the insane, the deaf and dumb, the blind and paupers.

I am sorry that I cannot tell you much about the institutions of Europe. In England I took special pains to visit an institution in Lancashire for weak minded children. It is an institution which I believe is doing great good, and I hope such a school may be established in this state. I believe that every boy and every girl is entitled to an education. We have our free schools, where our boys and girls can receive a free education. I believe the weak minded should also receive our care. I see no good reason why the weak minded child should be suffered to go without any education because he is a a little below the average in brains and ability, or why it should be left uncared for because it is an idiot. I know from what I have seen that the nearly imbecile child may be sufficiently educated and raised from a condition of ignorance and filth and groveling scarcely above the animal, so far as to care for himself and to earn his own living, to the great relief of his parents and friends and the community. I remember a school in Ohio — and there are schools in England — where they teach the idiot, or those almost unfitted to care for themselves, and educate them so as to become very respectable citizens, to earn their own living and become a comfort to their families. My theory has been, and is now, that these poor children, not endowed by nature with the full measure of sense, are as much entitled to opportunities for education and improvement as the other classes of the unfortunates, such as the deaf and dumb and the blind, now cared for so munificently by the state.

In France I saw none of the public institutions. My situation was such that I had no favorable opportunities for so doing. Strange as it may seem, I was in an office that required hard work, and I had little time to attend to other things than the duties connected with the office. In Spain, as backward as she is, and so far behind the age, I found in Madrid they were

erecting a states prison on the most modern plan, indicating that they had been studying our system and those of other countries. I also saw another institution, maintained by private subscription. Frequently the women who are sent to prison under their laws are accompanied by their children; they found that their prisons were constantly filled with children going there with their mothers, and so some of the philanthropic people established a school not far from the city, supported by private subscription, where these children of criminal mothers can be placed, and where they can be well kept and carefully instructed. In that country the education of the children is in the hands of the clergy of the Catholic church, and under ordinary circumstances this would not be allowed; but they don't care for that so long as the children are thus removed from the prisons and educated, and I think the school is doing a great and good work.

Since I came home, a few months ago, a very serious question has been presenting itself to my mind. Our towns and our cities are infested with criminals — professional thieves and burglars who are a terror to law-abiding citizens. Why? Because the laws do not protect law-abiding citizens against thieves and burglars. What does the law do to stop the thief from his work? He evidently has but little fear of the consequences. If arrested and convicted he is sent to prison for a short time, and is then released to again pursue his course of crime. I ask you if the danger to the professional thief or burglar in Wisconsin that he may be arrested and sent to prison is any terror to him? Once in a while a criminal is caught and sent to prison; but does that deter him or others from their course of crime? Not a bit. A term in the Wisconsin prison does not deter the hardened criminal at all. He has no sense of shame, and he knows that while he is in prison he has a better bed and better food than nine-tenths of the laboring men of Europe. He cares nothing for the disgrace. Going to prison has no terror for him. The question presents itself: Is it not possible to make the prison a terror to the evil doer instead of a comfortable home for him? Is not the prison too

much of the character of a reform school? True, very much may be done for the man who unfortunately falls into temptation and yields, but who does not belong to the hardened class of criminals, and perhaps a majority of convicted persons may be reached and rescued by good surroundings and careful teaching; and also very much may be done to harden them if they are treated like dogs. But how shall we reach the degraded, hardened criminals who are beyond the reach of these influences? I noticed there was a marked difference in the prisons of Great Britain and ours here at Waupun, and it is a fact that in Great Britain the prison systems are much harder on the inmates than ours. I was told in Liverpool that hundreds commit crime for the sake of going to prison, as they would have a better home than their own — a dry bed, a warm room, and enough to eat, and they have not as good a prison nor as good fare as the prisoners have at Waupun.

Perhaps the majority of convicted persons may be susceptible of improvement with good surroundings and careful teachings, but as a rule the hardened professional is beyond reformation, and enters as systematically on the commission of crime the day he is discharged from prison as on the day of his arrest. Where shall we look for the remedy? Should not the prison be made obnoxious to the criminal? If lenient measures in the treatment of prisoners will not protect us, what shall be done? These questions are very important, and are worthy of, and I hope will receive, full consideration by your Conference while it is here in session.

Mr. Elmore, of Wisconsin: I hope every citizen of Wisconsin will recollect what Governor Fairchild has said about feeble minded children. That question comes up year by year, and if it is properly presented and urged upon the Legislature I have no doubt they will act on it. There are such children in poor houses, hospitals, and other places, who ought to have a school of their own to go to, not only for their own good but also for the benefit of the state. And I fancy that before this Conference adjourns something will be said about the manage-

ment of these criminal classes, the best methods of dealing with them, and about indeterminate sentences.

Mr. Elmore then gave the President's Address, as follows:

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

Twenty years hence it is safe to predict, from my standpoint, that the National Conference of Charities and Corrections will have taken such hold on the public mind that its early history will be considered of some value, and even now, the enquiry is not unfrequently made, "How did this conference of charities begin?" And although this is only the ninth annual meeting, the real facts concerning its inception and beginning are known to half a dozen persons only, and they are getting aged, and in the course of nature will soon be gone. No book of record has ever been kept of the proceedings of the conferences; no by-laws adopted, and the rules governing our deliberations are made at each session. Whether or not this state of things shall continue will be for you to determine. Under the circumstances I have concluded to give a brief history of the origin and subsequent doings of the various conferences preceding this.

In February, 1872, the State Commissioners of Public Charities of Illinois came to Madison, and accompanied by the State Board of Charities and Reform of Wisconsin, visited the Wisconsin Hospital for the Insane and the Soldiers' Orphans' Home at this place; the House of Correction in Milwaukee; the Wisconsin Industrial School for Boys at Waukesha; the Institution for the Education of the Blind at Janesville, and for the Deaf and Dumb at Delavan.

During that trip it was talked generally that it would be a good thing for the boards of the states of Michigan, Illinois, Missouri and Wisconsin to meet together, become better acquainted with each other, exchange views on subjects in which all were interested, and try and obtain such information as would the better enable them to do their work in a proper manner; and it was agreed that the secretary of the Illinois state board should, when it was deemed a suitable time, notify each member of each of said state boards to meet and confer together at Chicago.

Such meeting was called, to be held at the Sherman House on the 14th of May, 1872, and was represented by two delegates from Michigan, four from Illinois and five from Wisconsin. The conference was in session two days. William C. Allen, of Wisconsin, presided, and Charles M. Crosswell, of Michigan, acted as secretary. A committee was appointed to report a programme of subjects for the consideration of the

conference. Judge Baldwin, of Illinois, chairman of said committee reported the following, which was unanimously adopted:

First—The object of imprisonment. (1) The protection of society; (2) The reformation of the criminal; (3) The prevention of crime.

Second—The result of the examination of jails in these three states. How far is the object sought attained under the present system.

Third—What would be the effect of a substitution of compulsory labor for compulsory idleness?

Fourth—Is compulsory labor in county jails practicable?

Fifth—Intermediate prisons. (1) The economic question; comparative cost of construction; comparative cost of maintenance. (2) Their reformatory effect. (3) Their deterrent effect.

Sixth—Obstacles to be overcome.

Seventh—Is it desirable to make an immediate effort to secure their establishment.

Eighth—Points with regard to which more detailed and accurate information is needed.

Ninth—Details of plan.

The several subjects presented for consideration were then discussed, all the members taking part therein, and after due deliberation a committee consisting of F. H. Wines, Samuel D. Hastings and Charles M. Crosswell, was appointed to embody in writing the views of the conference upon the several subjects considered and discussed.

That committee subsequently made a report, which was unanimously adopted.

The members visited the House of Correction the next day, and afteward adjourned.

This was the beginning of the National Conference of Charities. It had its conception here in Wisconsin, and without invidious distinction in states or individuals, it is just to say, that to the State Boards of Charities of Illinois and Wisconsin do we owe this meeting, and to Fred. H. Wines, then and now secretary to the State Board of Illinois, Samuel D. Hastings, then secretary of the State Board of Wisconsin, and H. H. Giles, then president and still a member of the State Board of Wisconsin, is much of the credit due for that first meeting.

The next conference of charities was held on April 15, 1873, at the Plankinton House, Milwaukee, in response to an invitation of the State Board of Charities of Wisconsin. Illinois was represented by three delegates, Michigan by two, and Wisconsin by six, and the session lasted that and the following day. Judge C. I. Walker, of Detroit, Michigan, was made president of the conference, and Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois, secretary.

At this meeting questions of similar character to those named in the first conference were discussed.

At the last day of the conference, in response to an invitation of the mayor of Milwaukee, Hon. D. G. Hooker, the delegates visited St. Mary's Hospital, the Milwaukee Orphan Asylum, St. Rose's Orphan Asylum, and the House of Correction, and passed a vote of thanks to the mayor, and the gentlemen associated with him, for the kind and courteous manner in which the members had been received and entertained.

This ended the second and last Conference of State Boards of Charities, as such.

These conferences had attracted so much attention that the Social Science Association in their call for a meeting to be held in New York on the evening of May 19, 1874, invited the State Boards of Charities in the several states to send delegates, and hold a conference in connection therewith.

In response thereto, Wisconsin sent two delegates, and this meeting is known as the First National Conference of Charities. Hon. J. V. L. Pruyn, of New York, president of the New York Board, was its chairman at its first session, and F. B. Sanborn, secretary of the Massachusetts Board, its secretary. Topics kindred to those discussed at the conferences at Chicago and Milwaukee were brought before the meeting, which met as a distinct body on the second day of that of the Social Science Association.

At this session a committee consisting of Mr. Sanborn, of the Massachusetts, Mr. Giles, of the Wisconsin, and Mr. Letchworth, of the New York boards, were appointed to report a plan for the uniformity of statistics of pauperism and crime, and for a better co-operation among the boards of charities of the United States.

At the second session, held the same day, the Boards of Health met jointly with them, and Dr. Stephen Smith, of the New York Board of Health, occupied the chair, and thereafter the National Conference of Charities, as such, did not make much show in the reports, and its proceedings as a distinct organization were not published.

At no time during the sessions were there as many present, or as much interest manifested, as at either the meetings at Chicago or Milwaukee; but a committee of earnest men had been appointed, and they made a report thereafter, the concluding part of which is as follows:

"It is hoped that the boards of public charity, and such others as may from time to time be established in the other states, will find it convenient, as it certainly would seem to be useful, to maintain a constant correspondence with each other, and to meet together for conference at least once a year.

"There can hardly be a too zealous co-operation between such boards, having common interests, and an intelligent desire to improve the methods of charitable and penal administration

throughout the country, since a bad system any where in use, affects more or less directly, all those states which may have a better system. A good example of such co-operation among the officials of a single state, is to be found in the Annual Convention of the County Superintendents of the Poor in New York, which for the present year was held at Rochester, on the 9th of June. Thirty-four counties were represented, by more than fifty delegates; and there were also present three members of the State Board of Charities, and the secretary of the New York Prison Association. The new legislation and the recent administrative experience of the whole state in regard to pauperism, was there ably discussed, and the published proceedings are of value to students of social science, all over the land. If what is here done in a single state, could be done in all the states, great advantage would result. Even if this is not possible for years to come, it will be possible to bring together the fifty or sixty persons who serve on the State Boards of Charities, for a yearly conference and comparison of methods and results. The undersigned having been empowered to do so, have invited a conference of the secretaries of the various boards in the city of New York to-day, and propose to call a general meeting of all the members of boards at some convenient time and place next year.

"Respectfully submitted,

"F. B. SANBORN, of Massachusetts,

"WILLIAM P. LETCHWORTH, of New York,

"H. H. GILES, of Wisconsin.

"NEW YORK, September 9, 1874."

The Second National Conference was held at Detroit, May 12 and 13, 1875. Gov. Bagley was called to the chair, and Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York, and Hon. Charles M. Crosswell, of Michigan, were chosen secretaries. The Social Science Association met at the same time and place. Some of the members in attendance, and notably the Wisconsin delegation insisted on severing our quasi-connection with the Social Science Association, urging that the practical questions of what we shall do with the poor, whom we always have with us, what we shall do with our insane and criminal classes, were of sufficient importance to absorb *all* our time at the conference; that many of the questions discussed at the meetings of social science were very interesting to listen to, some of them really valuable, but did not meet the demands of *to-day* with us; some of us would like to attend the social science meetings, which we could not do when they met at the same time as the Conference of Charities, and demanded that our next conference should be held at a different time and place from the Social Science Association. A majority, however, decided to still meet together, and the next conference was called at Saratoga, September 5, 1876.

One concession was made to the demand of the State Boards of Charities, and the proceedings of the conference for the first time had a separate publication.

The Wisconsin delegation left Detroit pleased with the city and their treatment there, and gratified with the attendance of delegates to the conference. They went there seeking information, expecting to find able teachers on the question of how to provide best for the chronic insane. Theory was abundant. They departed disappointed.

The Third Conference of Charities held at Saratoga, was organized by calling Gov. Tilden to the chair, who made an able address, and Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York, Dr. A. J. Ourt, of Pennsylvania, and T. W. Haight, of Wisconsin, were appointed secretaries. Wisconsin was represented by the Secretary of the State Board of Charities, and the conference was in session three days, 5–7 September, 1876.

The Fourth Conference of Charities was held at Saratoga, September 5th and 6th, 1877. John V. L. Pruyn, president of the State Board of Charities of New York, was called to the chair, and Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York, and Henry W. Lord, of Michigan, were appointed secretaries. The Social Science Association was placed, as usual, in the foreground, and the delegation from Wisconsin gave notice to the conference that this was positively their last appearance in the role of assisting to make a side show for the big performance; that if the great questions that met them squarely in the face day by day, were not of sufficient importance to call out delegates to a conference to consider them, without any alliance with others, they had better all resign, go home, and let those who had more just conceptions take their places. A resolution was adopted that the next conference should be held at Chicago, which resolution was subsequently reconsidered, and the secretaries authorized to fix the time and place, and make the call for the next conference.

The fifth annual meeting of the National Conference of Charities was held at Cincinnati, May 21–23, 1878.

This conference was again called in connection with the Social Science Association, was the only one in which the state of Wisconsin had no representation, and the last held in connection with any other organization. Gov. Bishop addressed the conference on its assembling, and occupied the chair until the next day, when Hon. G. S. Robinson, president of the State Board of Charities of Illinois, was elected president, and Rev. J. L. Milligan, of Pennsylvania, Rev. A. G. Byers, of Ohio, and F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, secretaries.

The Sixth Conference was held in Chicago, June 10–12, 1879, was called to order by Hon. G. S. Robinson and addressed by him, and the secretaries of the former conference requested to act until a permanent organization could be effected. Lieut.

Gov. Shuman made an address, which was responded to by Gov. Bishop, of Ohio. Gov. Smith, of Wisconsin, was also present and participated in its proceedings.

At the afternoon session, Gen. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio, was chosen president, Charles S. Hoyt, of New York, F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts, A. G. Byers, of Ohio, J. L. Milligan, of Pennsylvania, Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois, Henry W. Lord, of Michigan, and T. D. Kanouse, of Wisconsin, secretaries.

In the published proceedings of this conference the names of the delegates in attendance make their appearance for the first time.

It had been predicted that owing to the cutting loose from the Social Science Association the meeting would be small in numbers; but on the contrary, it surpassed in that respect, the most sanguine hopes of its friends.

An advocate of the joint meetings, writing the history of this conference, says:

"The Chicago conference was the most important of these gatherings that have been held. Not only were the various State Boards of Charities represented, but a number of states having no such boards were represented by delegates appointed by their respective governors. Valuable papers were read, and the subjects of insanity, pauperism and crime were discussed with reference to the application of preventive measures."

The Seventh Conference was held at Cleveland, June 29 to July 1, 1880, Gen. Brinkerhoff in the chair.

Addresses of welcome were made by Gov. Foster, of Ohio, and Mayor Herrick, of Cleveland, which were responded to on behalf of the conference by Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York.

On June 30th, F. B. Sanborn was chosen president, and John L. Milligan, of Pennsylvania, Warren F. Spalding, of Massachusetts, and A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin, secretaries. This conference was a very important one, both as regards numbers and work.

The Eighth Conference was held in Boston, July 25–30, 1881. The president, F. B. Sanborn, occupied the chair, and the secretaries were Rev. J. L. Milligan and A. O. Wright. Governor Long made an address of welcome.

The committee on organization recommended that the president of the next conference should commence his duties at the close of this year's sessions, which was adopted.

The conference was in every way a success, and each delegate left Boston impressed with the hospitality of its citizens.

The foregoing history has been written as a matter of duty. As an actor from the conception of the idea, it was under the circumstances perhaps more incumbent on me to write it than any one else, and I chose this occasion that it may surely go on our records. It has been made as brief as possible.

I hope that hereafter we shall have a book of record and a permanent recording secretary.

The National Conference of Charities and Corrections is no longer an experiment, and we know it is productive of great good; it is not as at the beginning, confined to state boards, yet, those boards are the main pillars of the edifice. No party or creed is known in our work. Any society or individual laboring in the same direction we give the hand of fellowship, and hail as brother him who works to make mankind happier and better.

At the close of the annual address the President said it would be no Conference of Charities at all if Mr. F. B. Sanborn was not brought before the audience so that we could all see him. It would be like the play of Hamlet with Hamlet left out. Will Mr. Sanborn please come forward?

Mr. Sanborn, of Massachusetts: *Mr. President:* I believe I never called out a speaker without giving him a little notice in advance. I have listened to the speakers to-night with pleasure.

In regard to the remarks that have been made by the President regarding the early relations existing between the American Social Science Association and this Conference, I thought it possible a wrong impression might gain ground. I ought to state that one reason why the relations between the societies were kept up longer than what in my own mind I thought best, was because we did not have an office nor a permanent secretary, and it was not possible to carry on the necessary correspondence from one meeting to another, and by being united it was easier to conduct the business than if separated when they were small. One reason why we did not print the names of the delegations of the earlier years was because the lists were so short. I think in the Conference in New York, in which four states were represented, only eight delegates were present; that would make rather a short list, and so we kept the matter hushed up among ourselves till we could make a better showing. Now there are more than two hundred here; last year I think there were about three hundred; and now no one thinks of going back to that union, which I think at the time was salutary rather than otherwise.

I was much interested in what Governor Fairchild said in regard to several matters. I think he has asked some most difficult questions to answer. Probably the one in regard to habitual criminals is the most difficult, and you will readily see why. Wherever the habitual criminal makes his appearance and is arrested for the commission of crime, it is difficult or impossible to obtain the evidence of his former criminality. Thus, here in Madison, a criminal may be arrested and there may not be sufficient evidence to convict him, but at the same time he may have been convicted and served out sentences in ten different states: and the public often knows these persons ought not to be at large, and yet there is not sufficient evidence to warrant their arrest and conviction. This matter was before the New York Legislature, and Mr. Mill, of Birmingham, thirty years ago, proposed to meet this difficulty by a system of records. An ingenious Frenchman proposed a plan to identify them, which in a small and compact country like England or France, might be done, though with difficulty; but in a country like ours, composed of forty states and territories, it would be impossible to establish any sort of permanent records in regard to habitual criminals that would be useful and reliable for the purpose. In some states there are strict laws with reference to vagrants and tramps, and they are more or less effective. But we must bear in mind that there are among them some of the most ingenious persons in the world, and any measure put in practice is soon met by their own acuteness. As Governor Fairchild knows, in war and in diplomacy, there is a great difference in making a move against one that is skilled and one that is not. The habitual criminal of the worst sort is without fear of the consequences, and he is one of the most skillful beings on the face of the earth, and most adroit in carrying out his schemes. While this class are lost to all shame, they place a high value on liberty, and prison life is extremely irksome to them. This does not refer to the class who seek the prison as a home; for to a person of the class referred to confinement is a severe punishment. His mode of life requires freedom, and while he is lost to all shame, he desires the most absolute per-

sonal freedom from all restraint. But he is not deterred from the commission of crime by the fear of imprisonment, because he supposes he will not be sent to prison. In the first place he may escape arrest, and if arrested he may escape indictment, or he may escape a trial; or if tried, may escape convictton; or he may not be sentenced, or receive a light one; and he may be pardoned out soon; or he may escape from custody or from prison. Experience does not seem to teach him that the law will ultimately fasten on him; and this I think is one reason why he is not deterred from a life of crime. But I did not rise to preach a sermon. [Applause.]

Mr. Elmore: What Mr. Sanborn says about giving a party notice before calling him out is true; but there is no absolute rule governing a president, and he can be as arbitrary as he has a mind to; and last year in Boston we thought Mr. Sanborn was pretty arbitrary. He is a Boston notion, and take him all in all we shall never see his like again. [Laughter and applause.]

Col. G. W. Burchard, President of the State Board of Supervision, invited the members of the Conference to visit the State Hospital for the Insane, across Lake Mendota, at any time during the session of the Conference. In accordance with the invitation, many members of the Conference visited the State Hospital at various times during tne week.

The Conference then adjourned, and participated in an informal reception by the Governor, in the Executive office.

SECOND SESSION.

TUESDAY MORNING, August 8, 1882.

Prayer by Rev. Dr. A. G. Byers, of Ohio.

Let us pray. Our heavenly father, we thank thee for the light of another day. We give thee thanks for the strength thou hast given us to enter on its duties; and while we give thee thanks for mercies past, we implore thy kindness and grace for the day given to us now. We rejoice that we are permitted to meet to consider together interests which we know lie so near the loving heart of our Father in Heaven. Wilt thou breath thy spirit on us and aid us in our sympathies, our thoughts, and our judgments, so that the conclusions which may be reached may be such as will honor God and do good to men. We ask for thy blessing on this conference, on all its members, and on the families we leave behind us, and on all the institutions that are here represented and upon all those connected with these institutions; may thy blessing rest upon our land, upon our nation, upon the president of the United States, and upon all in authority. Hear our prayer; give us kindness always, and finally save us through the Great Redeemer, Our Father in Heaven, hallowed be thy name, &c. (The conference joined in repeating the Lord's prayer.)

THE PROPER FUNCTIONS OF BOARDS OF STATE CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

BY PROF. GEO. I. CHACE, of Rhode Island.

Ladies and Gentlemen:

I propose to speak very briefly of the proper functions of Boards of State Charities and Corrections, and of some of the qualifications requisite for the successful discharge of these functions. What I shall say, will be understood to apply to such boards in their simplest form, with only advisory powers, and dependent for influence, upon the apparent wisdom and propriety of their recommendations.

Of the ordinary and well understood duty of these boards — the duty of visiting from time to time the institutions with

whose supervision they are charged, and of reporting annually to the legislatures the result of their observations, it is not necessary to speak. This, if faithfully and honestly done, can hardly fail to be productive of good. If on the contrary, it be done in a careless and perfunctory manner, or in an unkind and critical spirit, it will prove a positive evil. It were better that the trustees of these institutions should be directly responsible to the legislature, without any intervening body.

The highest service of Boards of State Charities and Corrections, consists in bringing, on the one hand, to legislatures, and on the other, to boards of trustees, the best knowledge — the fruit of the largest and ripest experience, touching the care of the dependent, delinquent and criminal classes. Legislators, prison inspectors, trustees of reform schools and other similar boards of management, have neither the opportunity, nor the leisure for a thorough investigation of the deep and dark problems of social science, and yet without the results of such investigation they are not prepared for the intelligent and proper discharge of their several duties. It is the special function of Boards of State Charities and Corrections to furnish this needed information and guidance.

Another and kindred office of these boards is the diffusion through the community of just notions in relation to the proper treatment of pauperism, vice and crime with a view to their reduction within the narrowest possible limits. Public sentiment must be moulded into forms favoring such treatment, and encouraging and supporting the government in all wise measures looking to that end, although making for a time additional demands upon the treasury. Under our democratic rule, no reform, however reasonable, or however much needed, can be successfully carried forward without the approval and co-operation of the great body of the populace. In the absence of such support, public institutions under the wisest and most efficient management lose half their usefulness.

These conferences, besides their immediate effect, in enlarging the views and strengthening the convictions of those who have part in them, are the means through their widely reported discussions, of spreading important knowledge, all over the land. Their published proceedings, everywhere welcome, as well as the annual reports of the different boards to their respective legislatures, further assist in educating, on the subjects of which they treat, the general public.

From the proper work of Boards of Charities and Corrections, we may infer some of the qualifications demanded of those who serve on such boards. They should be men of large intelligence, of broad views, and of generous sympathies — men in whose composition clearness of perception, good judgment and moral insight are predominent elements — men

of genius, christian philanthropy as far removed from a weak sentimentality on the one hand, as it is from a hard philistinism on the other — men who are willing to spend and be spent in the service, with no other reward than the good they may hope to accomplish — men of standing and influence in the community, who are sought for the service on account of their fitness for it, and not who seek it for personal ends, or are appointed to it as a reward for political service or through political favoritism.

Nor are these qualifications of character and standing alone sufficient. It becomes those who accept positions on Boards of State Charities and Corrections, whatever their social status, to make themselves thoroughly acquainted with what has been done, and what is now doing to minimize, or reduce to their smallest proportions, pauperism, vice and crime, and to master as far as possible the principles underlying such action. The function of these boards being simply advisory — they having neither legislative, or administrative powers — their influence in both of these directions, will be proportional to the respect felt for their recommendations. And this again will depend upon their known attainments and character. Legislatures surrounded, as they are, by all sorts of conflicting influences, are likely to pay little heed to the suggestions of a body of well meaning men indeed, but with whose ability and judgment they are not impressed. Boards of trustees, amid their trying and difficult labors will gladly receive advice from men in whose wisdom they confide, and whose experince, they know to be greater than theirs. While the same advice thrust upon them by a board failing to command their respect, would be resented as an interference in matters which belonged solely to them, and for which they alone were responsible.

And further, as Boards of State Charities have no real authority — no mandatory powers — it is important that their recommendations, however wise and well considered, should be presented with proper deference and courtesy to the legislative bodies whose action they invoke, so as if possible to win a favorable hearing. They should at least see that such recommendations do not fail to receive attention through any infelicity in the manner or time of presenting them.

So also having no actual control over the trustees whose labors they supervise, they should seek to establish and maintain with these boards a personal influence so strong that there will remain to them only the pleasant duty of guidance and inspiration.

Mere advisory boards sometimes complain of the want of authority. Their advice, they say, is not heeded. However valuable in itself, it is thrown away. This may be true in particular cases. But it is not the rule. Advisory boards, whether com-

posed of men or of women, or of both men and women, will in the long run, have all the influence to which their wisdom, good sense and practical knowledge of affairs, entitle them. Complaint of want of power, is under such circumstances, confession of a lack of some of the means of influence.

Already much has been accomplished by our boards of charities, in collecting and diffusing information, in shaping public opinion and in promoting reforms in state legislation, and in the management of state institutions; but still more important work remains to be done by them. By their mastery of some of the most pressing social problems and by the conspicuous wisdom of their recommendations, they should exert a potent influence in determining the creation of similar boards in states where such boards do not now exist. Originating in Massachusetts, the acknowledged leader in reform of every kind, only nineteen years ago, they have already spread through ten of the more influential of the states, and should continue to spread until not a state in the union is without them. A comparison between the prisons, alms-houses and asylums for the insane, in the group of states where these boards are in full operation, and the same institutions in states where such boards do not exist would be interesting and instructive. It may be said these boards are themselves the product of a larger intelligence and more advanced sentiment already existing in the states where they are found. This is to a certain extent probably true. But there can be no doubt that they have in time assisted in still further enlarging that intelligence and developing and strengthening that sentiment of humanity.

The efforts of these boards must be put forth on a higher plane. They must be directed to moral rather than material ends — the latter being allowed to follow, as they assuredly will, in the train of the former. Pauperism, vice and crime must be met in their first budding. The neglected and exposed children of the street, must be gathered into homes and schools, where they may be properly instructed and trained, and where their own tendencies may be repressed, and all the good that is in them through fostering influences, be brought out. Such homes and schools, although requiring at the start a considerable outlay, would in a single generation, as I believe, far more than repay their cost, in the diminished expense for jails, prisons and work-houses. When will our legislatures be courageous enough, and have faith enough to take this first step towards checking and bringing under control the great and growing evils of our modern civilization?

There is need of higher aims, and the employment of more efficient means in our reformatories and our houses of correction. Too great reliance is placed upon mere physical appliances. All right moral, social and personal influences must be brought

into more active play. Encouragement must take the place of repression. Rewards must be substituted for punishments. Hope is a stronger, as well as a more generous motive than fear. Obedience from love and respect is of more value in the formation of character, than an enforced yielding to mere authority. A spirit of kindness and contentment, of good will and trust, must pervade these institutions, before they can accomplish these legitimate ends. As too commonly managed, not half the good of which they are capable, is done by them. Their real success will not depend so much on the system upon which they are conducted, whether close or open, although I believe the latter in the right hands every way preferable, as upon the character of the man at their head, and the spirit breathed by him into his subordinates and employes. Rare gifts are required — little short of moral genius — for the successful management of reformatory institutions on the open system. Any man may turn keys, shove bolts and fasten bars. He may also enforce labor and conformity to rules by the deprivation of food, or the discipline of the lash. Nothing but brute strength is needed for this; and only brutish natures can receive benefit from it. All others are morally injured. A juvenile reformatory conducted after the manner of a prison, becomes a feeder to prisons. If there are any positions which it is important to have well filled — filled with able and wise men — men of earnest, self-denying and christian tempers — it is the headships of our reform schools and our houses of correction. When thus presided over and directed, these institutions do untold good. In other and different hands they may be a source of actual harm to the community. The diffusion of right views on this subject, and the lifting to a higher platform all reformatory work, is not the least of the tasks before us as Boards of State Charities and Corrections. This, indeed, if I mistake not, is the direction in which our efforts in the future will be mainly put forth. Moral appliances will come to take the place more and more of physical. It will be perceived that no form of evil can permanently withstand the power of goodness — that christian faith and love are the greatest of all conquerors—that there are none so fallen or degraded as to be beyond their reach — that the gospel of brotherly kindness and good will promulgated two thousand years ago in Judea and Galilee for the reformation of a world must be embodied and exemplified in all our institutions, before they can fully accomplish their beneficent ends.

I am of the opinion that this advance in our reformatory aims and methods, of which the need is so urgent, may be more easily and sooner made, under single boards, with full administrative powers, than under a system of double boards, one board having merely advisory, and the other executive func-

tions. A single board is most favorable to unity and efficiency of action. The danger of petty jealousies on the one hand, and of mischievous interference on the other, is precluded. Honest differences of opinion are worn away by discussion, and the best views, and wisest measures will generally prevail. The members of such a board having an individual responsibility, feel more strongly its pressure; while their larger powers confer additional dignity as well as deepen their sense of obligation. Their experience in administrative duties enables them to judge better as to what is practicable, and what if attempted would be sure to result in failure. How many of the schemes of philanthropists, when brought to this last test — the test of practicability — have been found wanting? It is this fact that makes legislatures so slow to heed the most earnest appeals of men and women truly benevolent, but without sufficient acquaintance with affairs to comprehend the difficulties that would be encountered, in carrying out their proposed reforms. The mere sentiment of benevolence, however genuine, must be enlightened, chastened and disciplined by the sober teachings of experience before it can be a safe guide to action.

The work before us, and before all good men, is a herculean one, whether we consider the inertia of the mass to be lifted, or what is worse, its tendency to gravitate downwards. But the work must be done. We are committed to it by the necessities of society. "The roaring loom of time," whether we will or not, weaves on. Fabrics of some sort are continually pouring out from it. Upon the efforts of the present generation, will depend in no small degree, what the character of those fabrics, for the next half century, shall be. Had we not a whole army of co-workers, we might well be discouraged at the magnitude of the task. Scholars and teachers and preachers and philosophers and statesmen and philanthropists, are all laboring for the same beneficent ends — ends towards which, as I believe, the Divine Providence is also working — the amelioration of society and the uplifting of humanity. With such co-operation, we need be disheartened at the vastness of the work to be done. But rather let us take fresh courage from the assurance that if we faint not, in due time, a precious harvest will be reaped from our united labors.

President Elmore: I feel very thankful to Prof. Chace for his excellent address. At the same time his portrait of what a member of the State Board of Charities ought to be is pretty rough on us. I think if we take it seriously to heart we shall find it very difficult to come up to his standard, try as hard as we may. However, if we can't come up to it, we will do our best to come as near to it as we can.

I am reminded by the secretary that all papers are open for discussion. I think it is a good thing to do, and we shall be glad to listen to any remarks any member may make on the paper just read.

Rev. M. McG. Dana, Minnesota: In the paper just read different boards are spoken of — advisory boards and state boards — boards that have different legal powers. I think in New York they have the right to inspect and ask questions, and make recommendations. In Minnesota we are a new state. We have no advisory board, but it seems desirable to have one as speedily as possible, and we have much to learn from the older states which have age and experience in the work of such boards, and learn from those who know how they work and how they are carried on.

Prof. Geo. I. Chace, Rhode Island: The Rhode Island board is peculiar. I think, perhaps, there is no other board just like it, but a statement of it would hardly meet the gentleman's case. I don't know of one of the larger states that could have a board constituted like that of Rhode Island. It is really composed of the boards of trustees and the board of charities united in one body. They have complete control of the state institutions. They report to the legislature what they wish and the legislature makes the appropriations they ask for, at least it always has done so; therefore there is perfect harmony existing between them, without which there would arise serious trouble.

I think the plan adopted in this state (Wisconsin) will meet the gentleman's idea more nearly. I understand that in this state there is a state board whose power extends all over the state and has charge of all the state institutions. I think here you have a board of charities besides. I suppose if you were to clothe one board with the powers of both boards it would be almost exactly like the Rhode Island board, if they were united to form one board about twice the size — I think four and five would make nine — a board of nine or ten. There is in Rhode Island a board composed of nine which performs all the duties of trustees, who are appointed by the governor,

with the approval of the senate, each appointed for six years. I don't know whether I have answered the gentleman's question or not.

PROF. WRIGHT, of Wisconsin: Is your board a salaried board?

PROF. CHACE: No; our board is supposed to be composed of gentlemen of leisure. The secretary, however, is paid. All officers of the board are appointed. The warden and superintendent are all appointed by the board. All the governor does is to appoint the board. It is supposed that there are enough gentlemen of public spirit and sufficient leisure to do this work without compensation. We have been a little afraid of political influence, and such a position would be under that influence if attended with emoluments so that men would aspire to that position. As it is now no one who is not imbued with public spirit and is willing to give a great deal of time to it will accept the position, and it is thought that as long as the board can be maintained on that basis it is the safest. How long that will be I don't know.

PROF. WRIGHT: Are not your state institutions all grouped in one locality?

PROF. CHACE: They are all grouped in one region, on lands of the state, in the town of Cranston, about seven miles out from the city of Providence, where are the state prison, the county jail, the alms house, the asylum for the insane, and the work house, and they are now removing the reform schools there. They are all removed from one another and have no influence on each other — they are entirely distinct. It is an economical arrangement. There is no questien that under the management of one board, if they are men of wisdom and knowledge of practical affairs, these institutions can be carried on more harmoniously and at much less cost. We are putting up buildings for the reform schools when they come under the care of the board. Of course the worst boys go to the reform school, and I don't see how they can be cured by being put in prison, as has heretofore been the case.

HON. D. W. INGERSOLL, of Minnesota: Was it a prison?

PROF. CHACE: Yes, it was a prison, a city reform school, taken from the city and made a state school. The legislature offered to put up buildings on these grounds and to open a school without any bounds whatever. But it is wonderful what a change has taken place in the boys.

REV. DR. BYERS, Ohio: Was that merely a temporary arrangement in the old place?

PROF. CHACE: Yes. It was there right in the very worst part of the city, and there was no fair chance to do good.

DR. BYERS: It is well to keep these facts in view. I suppose Prof. Chace will allow me to understand that in Rhode Island they can't get very far apart? (Laughter.)

PROF. CHACE: They can get out of sight.

DR. BYERS: In regard to the effects of neighborhood; is it not possible that your reform institutions may be brought under some unwholesome influences?

PROF. CHACE: I have no fear of that kind. I think if any one would go on the ground and see for themselves they would not fear that.

DR. BYERS: I have been there, and I think the arrangements very admirable. After all, I think reformatory institutions should not all be placed under one administrative board, or situated where they will be under the influence of the state prison and similar institutions.

HON. D. W. INGERSOLL, Minnesota: May I ask a question? In regard to their play and exercises, is there any fence around their play ground?

PROF. CHACE: There is a fence perhaps twenty feet high; they can see the sky, that is all.

PROF. WRIGHT: I should like to hear from Mr. Sanborn upon that subject.

F. B. SANBORN, Massachusetts: I represent a member of the committee for which Prof. Chace has just reported so ably, but I suppose it would appear, if our committee was canvassed, that there would be some difference as to the conclusions to be drawn by different members of the committee from the facts presented. Prof. Chace represents one opinion, Gen. Brinker-

hoff, who last year presented a report, and Judge Robinson represent quite a different opinion. As we pride ourselves in Massachusetts on being conservative, we should take a position between the two, and I, therefore, hold a middle ground. But in all these matters we are all as yet but pupils and experimenters.

It is idle for any one to say, no matter how long he has been in service, or how long any system has been tried, that he has found the true method. My judgment is that no one rule will apply to all our states, which differ so much in their character and the nature of their laws, &c. The system Prof. Chace favors in Rhode Island is admirably adapted to that state, but it would not do at all in Massachusetts. We could not carry it on in our state, small as Massachusetts is, compared with your state here, or with Ohio. It might not be legally impossible but it would be morally impossible, and if we should undertake it we should certainly fail. Hence, ever since our state board was organized, we have sedulously avoided such an organization as the State Board of Rhode Island. We have even avoided the power of appointment to offices in the state institutions, or of any direct control of expenditures. But we have, from the necessity of the case, been obliged to exercise other administrative powers. In that respect Massachusetts is somewhat peculiar. There was handed down from antiquity a system of dividing our poor, one part to be maintained at the expense of the state, the rest by the towns. It was a system that required a great deal of administration, and some one, on the part of the state, had to do it. About thirty years ago the state constituted a board, called the Alien Commissioners, to attend to the immigration which was rapidly coming in at that time, and this required the utmost strictness. Our hospitals were full of ship fever and other diseases and the state board took charge of the business under that emergency. The immigrants were all to be supported by the state if they were poor; but the support of the former residents also occasioned a great deal of trouble. Disputes were constantly arising between the state and the towns. There were some three hun-

dred cities and towns, and the support of the poor under the double headed system caused a great deal of trouble. When, in 1863, the Board of State Charities was established and succeeded to the Alien Commission, it had to carry on this administrative work.

Right here I should differ from some gentlemen who say that the duties of a board of this kind must be only advisory, and that they must not step outside of those functions. I don't quite agree to that. The duties of a central board are to be regulated strictly by the circumstances of the case. I think that in every state the central board should have power to regulate immigration, for a great deal of evil has arisen from the fact that in some states the supervision of immigration and the care of the poor has been separated. I don't know that Dr. Hoyt would agree with me, but I think the state of New York would be in a much better condition if the state charities and immigration had been from the first under one central board instead of two.

Now, as things have been going on in Massachusetts, or as legislation is taken up by any state, the business will develop like all other matters.

At present our board is not only performing its old duties, but it has had imposed on it other administrative duties, and finally, by the summary act of three years ago, there were added to this work of supervising the state charities and immigration, the relations between the state and the towns, the new duties of a lunacy commission and of the state board of public health.

This looks like a great transgression of the principles laid down in certain books, and is against the advice of some gentlemen who have reported here in times past. But I apprehend that the only limit to powers of this kind, and the only test of the propriety of conferring such powers on a central board, is the fact of their performing their duty well. There are certain reasons why these duties should be performed by the board that looks after the poor. You will find it impossible to separate the poor from the insane, for the insane,

from very natural causes, become paupers. If previously they were in good circumstances, insanity makes them poor, and in the nature of things this class must be looked after not only as insane persons, but also as paupers. So in Massachusetts, Rhode Island and some other states, these powers concerning the poor and the insane have been united, aud they would be better off were it so in New York, though, perhaps, Dr. Hoyt thinks it just as well as it is now in that state. In regard to public health there is the same complication. The public health is attacked in every community by the diseases of the poor, and all these diseases which require public interference, such as the small pox, scarlatina, &c., make their worst ravages among the poor. Whenever these diseases make their appearance, for the protection of the public, the houses of the poor must be entered and diseases dealt with by summary processes according to law.

Now this power must be exercised very speedily and perhaps arbitrarily, and when it is put in the hands of a state board of charities they may come in conflict with local health officers who have the care of these very persons, and so too the board of health deals with matters that are also dealt with by officers of the poor, and you may have conflict, or a failure to act promptly, as we had in Massachusetts.

During the small pox epidemic of 1872–3, we lost a thousand lives and a quarter of a million dollars because this power was in two sets of hands. You can't make the public health secure unless this power is in a single set of hands. We were taught this by our experience in 1872, and since, and it has been the experience and testimony of others. There has not been a year since 1872 where we were so much exposed as last winter, for then we had a large immigration from Canada (where there is very little vaccination) and from various sea ports, and we were constantly receiving cases of infection from Canada; and then, too, a large number of our paper-mills were nests of infection (more than one-half of the small-pox cases coming from these paper-mills).

In these respects you are exposed to the same sort of evils

in Illinois and here in Wisconsin as in Massachusetts or Philadelphia. In Massachusetts we were able to keep the small-pox within the limits of the city or town where it broke out. I think there was only one instance where the disease passed beyond the limits of the town where it originated, and when it is considered what our public is — the people often residing in one place and working in another — you see, how important it is that this matter should be in charge of the state authorities and be hampered no longer by this double system.

Such a disease always breaks out among the poor, the very class the authorities have to support.

In our state an officer is sent at once to see that the case is isolated, and then that the unvaccinated are vaccinated. In this respect our board went far beyond the requirement of the law, and did vaccinate between five and ten thousand persons. On several lines of railroads the employes were vaccinated — the Hoosac Tunnel, Albany, &c.,— and we vaccinated also the postal agents on the mail routes throughout the state. The result was that instead of loosing a thousand lives and a quarter million of dollars as before, we lost only twenty lives and perhaps twenty-five thousand dollars. This, I think, shows the entire feasibility of placing this power in one set of hands, and I make these remarks because what has been tried in one state successfully will succeed in all, if tried with the same energy.

Gen. Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Ohio: A reference has been made to my report of last year, and I think a little mistake has been made in regard to it. I do not think there is any particular difference between Prof. Chace and myself. I do not understand that he advised the system of Rhode Island for the larger states, but that he regards that form as the best for Rhode Island. I am willing to concede that as probably true, where, as there, all the institutions are on one farm. In such case I can see very well why it may be wise for the state board of charities to exercise full administrative powers, but where you come to a great state like Ohio, with its eighty-eight counties, and its half dozen insane asylums, its penitentiary, its

asylum for the deaf and dumb, the blind and the idiotic, its reform schools, and in each county a jail, a poor house and a childrens' home, and in its great cities various other charitable and correctional institutions, it would be physically impossible to adopt the Rhode Island system.

It is possible also, that in a state like Massachusetts, it may be desirable, as claimed by Mr. Sanborn, to confer some administrative powers upon its board of state charities. But for a state like Ohio, or Illinois, or Michigan, or Indiana, or Pennsylvania, I believe the state board of charities should have no administrative powers whatever, but should be purely advisory. We cannot undertake to administer upon details. A railway superintendent might as well undertake to exercise the functions of a section boss and of all other minor officers. All we can possibly do as a board of state charities in a state like Ohio, where we have general supervision, not only of charities but of corrections also, is to study systems, make inspections, and give general direction to all.

Where a state is willing to bear the expense, I think it well, as in Massachusetts, to have two separate boards, one for the supervision of charities, and the other for corrections, but even then they will have all they ought to do without any administrative powers.

The duties of the board of state charities, as I conceive them, is to study systems, visit institutions, not only at home but abroad, and in all possible ways keep themselves abreast of the best thought and best experiences of the world, and then bring the information thus gathered to bear upon the institutions, the legislature, and the people of their own state.

The moment you impose executive powers upon a board you will lower its character, for at once, to that extent, it ceases to be a disinterested body. If, in addition, you give its members salaries, the degradation of the board to political uses is inevitable, and its main usefulness will be ended. With offices to bestow, and contracts to award, and salaries to be received, the members of a board of state charities will be selected for party service rather than for devotion to the duties required. With

such a Board in Ohio, not one of its present members would remain. We probably could not if we would, but we certainly would not if we could.

As now constituted, our board is out of politics, the law dividing its six members equally between the two political parties, and making the Governor of the State *ex-officio* chairman. Politics never enters into our thoughts in considering our work, and I think never will with a board thus constituted.

In our judgment, for a Board of State Charities, *its best service will be an unpaid service, and its only powers should be advisory powers.*

Hon. D. W. Ingersoll, Minnesota: *Mr. Chairman:* I suppose you could put all New England and something more into Minnesota. It would be impossible to put all our institutions under one Board; the insane asylum is in one portion of the state, the state's prison in another extreme portion of the state, the reform school is near the state capital, and if you had one board to do all the business of these institutions it would take almost their entire time.

There are various interests involved in this question. Our state reform school is a noble institution, from which our boys go out to farm work, or go into the shop and engage in manufacturing, and they are kept there by influences which reach every boy, and there is no one who can judge so well of what is needed, and how the inmates of these schools shall be employed and directed, as the Board of Managers. I speak from experience in relation to this work. No one can so well understand the wants and necessities of these institutions as the Board that meets there often. I speak now especially of the reform school. I think it would be well to have an advisory board whose duty it will be to visit all these institutions, to look after them, their location, the manner of conducting them, etc.; but to make them the center of power I am utterly opposed to.

Prof. Chace: I think I am misunderstood. Gen. Brinkerhoff has stated exactly my position. It is out of the question in these large states for an advisory board to take charge of all

these institutions. I did not intend to advocate the plan of the little state of Rhode Island for these large states. But where such a board can be adopted I believe there is more certainty and efficiency of action.

Prof. Wright, Wisconsin: I would like to say as to the system of Wisconsin, under the new organization, that a single board has been appointed to act as a board of control of these six state institutions, and the very thing has been attended to that has been pointed out by Prof. Chace and Mr. Ingersoll. As to our institutions, they are scattered in different portions of the state, and obviously a single unpaid board could not attend to them all properly; and so there has been created a new State Board, with salaries, and they give their whole time to the managing of these six state institutions. The State Board of Charities and Reform remain, with no advisory powers over the state institutions, but over all county and private institutions they have added powers, as in the case of the county insane asylums, which will be the subject of an address by Mr. Giles this evening. And let me say here, that in such states as Minnesota, or Iowa, where they are moving to establish something of this kind, a Board of Charities organized substantially as in Ohio, is the best to begin with, and afterwards, as developments may occur, changes may be made as deemed wise; but an advisory board is the best to begin with.

C. B. Lockwood, Ohio: In regard to one question: I happened to be a member of the legislature at the time of the first discussion, I believe, relating to the appointment of this board. I want to say to the delegates from states where such boards have not been appointed, that we found it exceedingly difficult to get such a measure adopted, unless it was agreed that it should have no administrative power. The legislatures are made up of politicians, and here is the trouble; and I hope if any expression goes out from this body on that subject to these states, it will be that such boards ought to be organized without administrative power. I know it would not be near as difficult to give them some power in Ohio now as it was at first to get it established, because the board has developed its abil-

ity to do good work; but at first an advisory board only should be attempted.

Dr. Chas. S. Hoyt, New York: In New York, the board, organized in 1867, was given advisory powers only, with authority to visit and examine the various poor-houses and almshouses, and all charitable, correctional and eleemosynary institutions receiving state aid. This authority was subsequently extended so as to embrace all such institutions, whether supported by public or private munificence; and it was also empowered to direct the removal of the chronic insane from county poor-houses, under certain conditions, to state asylums. Its methods of dealing with evils are through the local authorities and by the force of public sentiment. When a wrong is found to exist in any institution it is promptly brought to the notice of its proper officers, and, if they refuse or neglect to make the correction, they become thereafter responsible to the public for its continuance. The board may invite legal action, through the attorney-general, but it has never, as yet, deemed it desirable to resort to this measure, nor has it been found necessary in any case to make a positive order to effect the transfer of insane to the care of the state. Our extended system of local support carries with it local responsibilities, and any central interference with the counties and towns, in the conduct and management of their charities, other than advisory, would be met in a spirit of hostility that would soon destroy the influence of good for any board. In the discharge of its duties the New York board, therefore, aims carefully and intelligently to point out to the proper officers any evils or wrongs found to exist in any of the institutions within its purview, leaving it to them to make the correction; and its recommendations, though sometimes attended with delay, have seldom, if ever, been disregarded.

Continuing, Dr. Hoyt cited numerous instances in which great and lasting reforms had thus been effected and advanced methods adopted in the management and affairs of the charities of New York. In this way many important improvements had been brought about in the poor-houses and alms-houses; a bet-

ter supervision and care had been secured to the chronic insane, the sick poor received more thoughtful and kind attention, and an improved classification, so important in the management of these institutions, had been established. With the co-operation of the superintendents and other local officers, a law had been secured by which the children had been removed from the poor-houses and alms-houses; a better and more economic care had been extended to the unsettled poor; a systematic return of lunatic, idiotic, blind, crippled and other infirm alien paupers to the countries whence they came, had been enforced; and a uniform system of registration and reporting in regard to pauperism and its expenses had been instituted. To have attempted these improvements and reforms from a central standpoint, without inviting local aid, would, in his opinion, have resulted in great delay, if not in the end in complete failure.

In respect to administrative duties by state boards, Dr. Hoyt thought they should not generally be undertaken. It might work well in a small state like Rhode Island, and even in large states, in exceptional cases, but it should not, as a rule, he believed, be encouraged. The New York board is now charged with providing for its state poor, and with the return of alien paupers. These duties are mainly performed by its executive officers, the legislature declining to create additional departments for these purposes. Thus far these duties have caused no embarrassments, yet the board is not inclined to take upon itself extended administrative duties, nor to seek additional powers.

THE PREVENTION OF INSANITY.

By Jennie McCowen, M. D., of Davenport, Iowa.

Within the last quarter of a century the essential features of the care and treatment of insanity, the general management of hospitals, the unprecedented increase of the disease, its relations to crime and pauperism, and the financial burdens it imposes, have attracted much attention from both medical and philanthropic points of view. A disease from which no condition, nor rank, nor age nor sex is exempt; an evil so far reaching in its influences, so baleful to the individual, so disastrous

to the family, so burdensome to the state, may well incite the most profound study of all its varied phases. The difficult and perplexing problems presented by this disease have been intently studied by those having opportunity to do so, and the facts which were found to have a bearing upon the public welfare have been from time to time urged upon public attention. But notwithstanding this, the evils attending a disease so peculiar in its nature, are of such magnitude, and seem to be increasing with such rapidity, that no physician who accepts the aphorism of Bacon, that "every man is a debtor to his profession, and ought of duty to be a help thereto," can decline when called upon to add his mite to the effort to popularize information which may have a tendency to decrease the evil. In this lies my only defense for venturing to accept the invitation to address you on this subject. If, haply, I shall be able to offer for your consideration some thoughts which may promote discussion, and so elicit from those of more mature judgment and more extended experience, views which shall be of value in awakening a more active interest in this particular phase of the question — the prevention of insanity — my purpose will be fully attained.

It is estimated that there are now in the United States 100,000 insane persons. Less than half that number can find accommodation in the hospitals, public and private, which have sprung up in the last decade in all parts of the country. From 1870 to 1880, according to the census returns, our population increased about 26 per cent., the insane population *over* 100 *per cent.* This, as you know, is to some extent apparent rather real; but after making due allowance for all sources of error, the actual increase is undoubtedly in excess of the increase in the population. At least there is no question that the increase exceeds our ability to provide for it; the cry for *more room* coming up year after year from almost every state, many of the hospitals being constantly crowded far beyond their estimated capacity, the overflow finding refuge in and fast filling up the poor-houses and the jails.

The earlier writers on insanity gave us the assurance that it was as easily curable as any other disease, and the belief has been widely entertained that a very large percentage of cases were discharged from the hospitals cured. It is now coming to be understood, however, that this was a misapprehension. The statistical tables issued by hospitals were, unintentionally doubtless, misleading to the general public; and by the admission of hospital superintendents themselves, the popular belief in the great curability of insanity was never justified by the facts. The same authority leads us to infer, also, that it is quite possible that an actual change may have taken place in the forms of mental disorder, rendering it less amenable to treatment, and that insanity, as a whole, may be really becom-

ing more and more an incurable disease. Even the most conservative acknowledge that the results of treatment are no longer so favorable as in former periods; that recoveries have shown a constant tendency to decline numerically, with a more decided decline within the past few years. It does not come within our province to discuss, at this time, the reason for this decrease in results, notwithstanding the improved appliances for treatment. It is sufficient for our purpose that it is an acknowledged fact from those best qualified to speak — the hospital superintendents.

The burden of testimony now conclusively establishes that even under the most favorable circumstances insanity is curable only in its earliest stages, and in uncomplicated cases; that it is doubtful if a person who has once been insane can ever be sure, under all circumstances, of quite the same degree of mental integrity as before; while of those who seemingly recover, but a small percentage do not sooner or later suffer relapse. With *insanity constantly and rapidly increasing, and the number of the cured constantly decreasing*, a problem is presented for our consideration which well may give us pause.

The claims which the insane have on those less unfortunate than themselves have been clearly recognized and responded to with unparalleled generosity. It is estimated that the annual expenditure for the lesser number of the insane, who are cared for in the hospitals, is $12,000,000, an amount greater than for any other dependent class. The tax-payer appreciates that *this* is *real*, not apparent; yet no "wards of the state" are more willingly or cheerfully provided for than are the insane. But is not the well-worn maxim in regard to the "ounce of prevention" especially applicable here, not only as a measure of economy but as a measure of humanity?

But can insanity be prevented? Again giving precedence to those having best opportunities to know, I quote from a hospital superintendent now deceased, who was regarded as an authority in his specialty: "The more extended my experience the more strongly have I been impressed with the apparent fact that insanity is to a large extent the result of ignorance and the reckless violation of the commonest rules of health and laws of heredity, and is, therefore, *in a high degree a preventable disease*." This belief seems sustained by most, if not all, who have given attention to the subject; yet comparatively little has been done towards bringing it to the attention of the public, and impressing upon them the fact that so long as they go on in ignorant or heedless violation of the commonest precepts of healthful living, so long will they bring upon themselves the corresponding penalties. The duty of so warning the public has been regarded as a professional prerogative, but the general profession has shown a disposition to leave it to those making insanity their special study; these in turn have

been so occupied with the actual presence of the disease as to leave little time for the study of preventive medicine. But in this age of diligent investigation and keen research which has "*prevention*" for its watchword, the medical profession can not be held guiltless, if from its coigne of vantage it fails to warn with no uncertain sound, the multitudes who, from every walk of life, have joined in the steeple-chase for wealth and worldly honors and distinctions, and are rushing heedlessly upon the pitfalls where lurks an enemy more grim than death itself.

Any satisfactory theory of prevention must of necessity be based upon the causes which operate to bring about the disease. Although much of conjecture and uncertainty overshadow the subject in all its phases, there are some facts in regard to its causation which seem pretty well established. Prominent among these stands that of hereditary transmission. The laws of heredity so universal in their application, from the simplest cell upward through all gradations of organic life, make no exception here. The records of insane asylums establish beyond a doubt that one of the most potent of the primary causes of insanity is the transmission from parent to child of a defective or illy-balanced nervous organization, predisposing to nervous or mental disease. This hereditary taint, underlying other causes which in themselves might be harmless for evil, by its additional weight precipitates the unhappy victim upon the shoals and quicksands prepared for him by his thoughtless or reckless ancestry.

Ill health, in one form or another, as a factor of insanity, stands among the first in point of numbers in the reports from every hospital in the country. This is a significant fact, in view of the belief that in a large percentage of these cases insanity might doubtless have been prevented by an observance of the laws of personal and domestic hygiene, and proper medical attention at the inception of the disorder.

Alcohol, as a causative agent of disease has, of late, attracted much attention in scientific and reformatory circles. It is the unequivocal testimony of all who have candidly investigated the subject that if not causing insanity *per se* to the extent claimed by some, its habitual use undoubtedly gives rise to a modified nutrition of the nervous system favorable to its development when conjoined with other factors, especially the potent one of heredity; and that its inheritance to future generations is a physical, mental and moral degeneracy, culminating with but the slightest exciting cause, in epilepsy, idiocy or insanity, not to speak of moral obliquities and crime. Hospital superintendents have from time to time given warning of this connection as cause and effect, and they have made the stronger statement that "few know how many victims alcohol directly or indirectly sends to the insane asylums. The tables of causes do not show it, for the reason that many

friends of patients withhold the truth from the record books. In many cases, also, when alcohol is really to blame, the friends are not certain that it has been the cause of the "business failures and perplexities," "domestic afflictions," "bereavements" and "infeliceties," "ill-health" and "nervous prostratisn," so often recorded as the immediate or direct cause of insanity, and for the sake of his friends and character, the patient is given the benefit of the doubt. Only diligent inquiry on the part of the superintendent brings out the truth that liquor drinking is the root of much evil that the world in general, with all its knowledge upon the subject, knows not of; that it is at the bottom of much of the mischief done to the human system, terminating in insanity and credited to other causes.

Another superintendent, with almost forty years experience in the treatment of the insane, joins the deleterious effects of tobacco with those of alcohol, and adds, "I do not think the numerical strength given them in the tables of causes is a tithe of the injurious influences they exert. Most certainly is this the case, in my opinion, with tobacco. Both operate injuriously, first, as an associate and predisposing cause, and, secondly, in creating a condition to be transmitted to offspring favoring the development of nervous and mental disease.

Another source of insanity which does not enter largely into the tables of enumerated causes, at least under a separate and appropriate heading, is *monotony of work and thought*, the treadmill of ceasless care and toil to which so many conscientious souls are self-condemned without the rest, change and recreation so essential to the preservation of a healthful elasticity of mind and cheerfulness of spirit. The largest number of victims to this cause is found among the mothers of the land, although by no means confined to them, but including as well teachers, artisans, farmers, professional workers, all who go on week after week, month after month, year after year, in the same monotonous current, the same unvarying and ceaseless round, in utter disregard of the simplest laws of mental health, which, for its integrity, demands change and variety. In the report of the Hartford Retreat for the Insane for 1881, is cited so characteristic a case, that I trust I shall be pardoned if I reproduce it.

"Mrs. M., age 44, mother of eight children, acute mania." The husband, when asked if he could suggest any cause for her illness, exclaimed, with much animation, that he could not conceive any reason. She is a most domestic woman; is always doing something for her children; is *always* at work for us all; never goes out of the house, even to church on Sunday; never goes gadding about at the neighbors, houses or talking from one to the another; has been one of the best of wives and mothers and was *always* at home.

The superintendent, in commenting on this case, says, "This appreciative husband could hardly have furnished a more graphic delineation of the causes of his wife's insanity, had he understood them ever so thoroughly. This woman's utter disregard of the simplest laws of health, had rendered her, in her husband's eyes, chief among women. If, however, she had committed a few of the sins so heinous in her husband's sight; if she had more often broken away from the spell of husband and children, forced herself from that ceaseless round of care and duty, if she had taken herself out of doors into the pure air and sunshine of heaven, even at the expense of less cleanly floors and an occasional tear in the children's clothing, the probabilities are largely indicative that she would never have come to the Retreat for the Insane."

This is a typical case, and illustrates how thoroughly ignorant many people, who are ordinarily intelligent in worldly matters, may be as to the primary conditions of mental health.

Time forbids more than a mention of some of the other factors which pave the way to mental unsoundness, nay, *invite* its development, such as the habitual yielding to impulse unchecked by reason and judgment, with the indulgence or morbid exaggeration of emotional frames of mind; the cultivation of a morbid sensitiveness under the mistaken notion that it is an evidence of an unusually refined and superior nature; the habitual yielding to an unreasonable, fretful, irascible frame of mind, with all the gradations of ill-temper, increasing by exercise, until the frequent outbursts of passion and paroxisms of rage finally terminate in the fury of veritable madness; pernicious habits and excesses of various kinds tending to the exhaustion of vitality — all these things being assuredly more or less within our own control. An enumeration of the causes of insanity would, however, manifestly be incomplete without mention of the remaining few over which we have no control, as accidents, injury to the head, sun stroke, &c.

After this cursory view of the subject can we fail to accept the belief of the hospital superintendents that insanity is largely a preventable disease, that many of its causes are largely and others entirely under our own control?

It must be confessed, however, that many difficulties present themselves, and that with reflection the less hopeful features of the case grow upon us. Insanity is, in the fewest number of cases, the result of any one cause, much more frequently it is the culmination of a long line of unfortunate circumstances which have been operating, secretly and insidiously it may be, through a series of years, in many cases even ante-dating the birth of the individual, and at the last no effort at control on the part of the individual nor exercise of skill on the part of the physician can hope to avert the impending calamity. To be effective, preventive measures must be instituted at an ear-

lier date. They must provide that childhood be not deprived of its rights — the initial right of being well born and the subsequent right of judicious and intelligent training. But how can we expect that parents, who are themselves living in flagrant violation or complete ignorance of the laws of life, will train up their children to correct habits? Clearly the first step to be taken is to disseminate more thoroughly in the community a knowledge of the facts bearing upon the subject — facts already well known to the profession and to those who have made a study of the matter. Being limited as to time, I cannot go into detail, but this information should include the laws of heredity, together with the resources of our natures, and how to develop them systematically; a knowledge of the antecedent conditions of insanity, and the imperative need for timely medical aid in its incipient stages; the knowledge that it is curable only in its earliest stages, and that after it is once fairly inaugurated it rapidly tends to become chronic; the fact that in a great majority of cases there is no place so unfavorable for the treatment of insanity, when once established, as at the home of the patient, surrounded by home friends; and that however repugnant to the natural feelings, the plan which promises most favorable results, is an early and complete removal from all the influences under which the disease was developed and by which it may be kept active; that repair in nerve tissue is slow and that nothing is to be gained while everything may be lost by a premature removal from the care and supervision which has conducted the disorder to a favorable convalescense; that even though the injurious effects may not be at once apparent, hospital superintendents attribute to this ill-advised impatience much of the recurrent insanity with which our hospitals are crowded; that while an observance of the laws of health is incumbent upon all, the obligation is doubly binding upon those who have inherited tendencies toward disease, so that by habitual care in the wise conduct of life, the unhappy inheritance may, if possible, remain latent in their own persons and be modified if not wholly overcome in future generations; that these laws are neither too abstruse to be comprehended nor impracticable of application.

The force of recommendations such as these will, of course, depend largely upon the claims which the person presenting them may have on the attention of the public. If made by those who have devoted their lives to the study of these subjects, who have had large experience and observation, who have proven their claims to be heard by their success in the actual management of mental disease, their words must carry weight. If, on the state board of health, one or more such physicians were appointed whose special duty it might be to have a general supervision of this matter in the state, who should gather statistics and make an intelligent and profitable

use of the collected records, with special reference to this subject, who should make investigations and inquiries respecting the causes of mental unsoundness and the effects of employments, conditions, habits and circumstances upon the mental health of the people; who should point out, with authority, the elements which threaten the mental welfare, strength and health of the citizens, and should the local boards of health co-operate in this work, bringing to the notice of the people of each community the results reached, and urge the adoption of the advice proffered, might we not hope that something could be done, even in the present generation, to stay the tide of insanity which, with its concomitant evils, threatens to overwhelm us.

PRESIDENT ELMORE: I wish to apologize for a remark Bishop Gillespie says I made last evening, that I expected but few persons here this morning. We had seventy-five here at the opening of this morning's session. A year ago, in the big city of Boston, at the opening of the morning session after the first meeting, we had just twenty-seven, and there were less than fifty at the close. There has never been a session of the conference where there were so many in attendance on the morning after the opening meeting as here. We will now proceed to discuss the paper just read.

DR. BYERS, Ohio: It would be well to remember that this is the first time we have been in Wisconsin, and we are naturally attracted by the beauties of your city and surrounding scenery which would account for delay on the part of some in getting here.

MRS. SARA A. SPENCER, Washington, D. C.: *Mr. President:* I feel that the paper just read is rich and valuable in its suggestions and truths so beautifully expressed. It seems to me we could only come to listen, believe and put them in practice.

There is one cause of want of mental balance, of liability to go off on a tangent, and of weakness to which some of the finest minds seem to be subject, and that is their inability to bear heavy strains upon their mental powers, and the ease with which they give way to trials and reverses; and another cause which ought to be mentioned. After the war there was an increase of insanity as the result of homes broken up, and the

greatly increased burden of care and anxiety resting on the people. But there is another cause which, when we consider it, we only wonder that the increase of insanity has not been greater; when we bear in mind that we are fifty millions of people, each one coming into existence at a cost of agony no tongue can portray, and that each mother, whether young, inexperienced and untried, or wise, thoughtful and reverent, has no choice, and the results are that human lives are brought into existence under most unfavorable conditions which never ought to exist.

When we remember the dram shops and the dens of vice in this country where the fathers and the prospective fathers receive their preparations for fatherhood, and then as we see the feeble, partially developed beings on our streets, who have been chance people, accidentally born, I think we ought not to overlook the potent cause, that the mothers have absolutely no choice of the conditions of motherhood; that the vast majority of mothers dare not say that they have any wish to have a choice over the conditions of motherhood. I don't wonder at the increase of these feeble-minded, mentally deformed beings; the only wonder is that the increase is not greater.

I asked the superintendent of the insane asylum across the lake yesterday, what he thought was the principal cause of insanity among the female inmates. He said he thought it was trouble. I watched the faces of the women there, and I do not wonder that it was trouble. How can the wives and mothers enter into any large life or be in any great manner intelligent when the whole training of little ones, and the care of them when they are sick and fretful, is thrown upon them, and upon these overburdened mothers worn down with cares and nervous debility, come trooping on in vast swarms these children till, as a mother told me yesterday, they never have time to read a morning paper, much less time to read a work on heredity; but they labor on under burdens so heavy, they have neither time for conversation or consideration of the many topics of interest and information that ought to come as a relief, and finally they fail under their burdens and go to the

insane hospitals. But how can we reach these mothers unless we release them from their ever unceasing and enforced bondage of parentage? I have written a book on this subject which has been widely circulated; an appeal to the lovers of humanity and purity, pursuing this line of thought, which, it seems to me is one of the most important that can come before this conference; that it should be left with the mothers to decide the conditions of motherhood. I feel that this is nothing more than right and that in it lies hope for the women of the world, and for the children, that they might enjoy the right of being well born.

Dr. J. W. Ward, of New Jersey, said he had had under his own care, as superintendent of the insane asylum at Trenton, over four thouaand patients in twenty years of experience. He was pleased with what he had heard, and when there was a change in the direction indicated we might hope for less insanity, but not till then.

Mr. Sanborn, of Massachusetts: You have made a considerable study of the causes of insanity; have you anything to say on that?

Dr. Ward: Not at present, but I probably shall have before the conference is closed.

An invitation from the librarian of the state historical rooms to visit the library at the convenience of the members of the conference was read by the president.

Dr. J. W. Scott, Ohio: The discussion on the paper read has taken a little different turn from what I apprehended it would. I have no doubt that some of the main causes of insanity are produced by our civilization, as we call it, and while men and women are constituted as they are — and I hold wisely constituted — because I believe that nobody can make man better than he has been made heretofore and is to-day. We are all born with loves and hates; with temperaments given to us by our fathers and mothers. It has been so from the earliest beginning of the race, and will continue so as long as the race exists, I think. And with these temperaments, with these environments, we have what produces the conditions of insan-

ity. The love of money, the anxiety for its acquisition, and its retention after it is acquired, all these help to make influences that lead with certain conditions of temperament and disposition to the development of conditions that produce insanity, and until we can arrive at and control these conditions so as to prevent their occurrence, we shall have insane people. I believe that the dispositions of people, the loves and the hates, were given by the great Creator for good purposes, and if we violate his law, or misuse the abilities with which we have been endowed, we suffer the consequences, and it will not do to preach a doctrine that abrogates them *in toto*. We can't escape them, we can't shape them, and we had better accept them as they come to us. I myself have seen men in positions in life where their capability would ordinarily be unequal to the task of contending with surrounding circumstances and the tests before them; they would become wearied and nervous sometimes, and exhausted, not because they were specially at fault, but on account of their organization. I remember distinctly a colonel in the army before Nashville, a man of some distinction, of good qualities in some respects, but inefficient and incapable of performing the duties of his position, aud he was so worried over it that he became insane, and for six years was in the hospital near Cleveland, and was sent from there to Washington, where he died after a number of years. This man became insane from overtaxation of his abilities with cares and perplexities. General Thomas sat there and could command a thousand regiments with all their perplexities, and yet not become insane. And so it is in life. All men are not born equal in this respect, with mental power and nervous vigor alike. The people can, if they desire, make these things hereditary to a certain extent to their descendants. But if the people will think on these questions; if they will gain wisdom in works, in study, and seek to make the best use of their opportunities and abilities, we shall hereafter have a better race of people.

I believe there are more crazy people among those who are all the time seeking to avoid the consequences of work than there are among those who take things as they come, living in

accordance with the laws of God and of the state in which they live, feeling their responsibilities and doing their duty. To such there is a prospect of a long life. And so our duties should be divided. My wife has a capacity for performing duties relating to the household, and so far she has acquitted herself well. I take the responsibility of doing some other things which I do not ask her to do; but I do ask her to take care of the children and stay at home, and when I am away to see that things go on at home properly. When I am there I take the responsibility to some extent. We must divide these responsibilities. She and I have an understanding, and there has never been any controversy in regard to authority between us. I let her have her own way. [Laughter.]

But when we come to look at this from every side, there are many things to be considered as a cause of insanity — as in the case of the drinking man, and we say it is whisky, or this or that, or what you please. I know of a good many; and a fruitful cause is overtaxation in mental work, as that of young ladies sometimes in teaching; and of men of the world, who by their force and energy attain positions for themselves who are not to the manner born. Is notthat true? And so we have got to take all things into consideration and study them closely in relation to this subject.

Rev. Dr. Hutchins, Minn.: *Mr. Chairman:* I want to ask a question. The gentleman who has just spoken referred to insanity as being caused by excessive burdens. The lady who first spoke also referred to like excesses. I would like to ask whether these cases of breaking down are not caused by the excesses to which the lady referred; and whether insanity in man as well as in woman, is not promoted by a depletion of the nervous forces, and in the line spoken of, and if excessive labors do not cause this depletion of the vital forces and occasion the breaking down in a great many instances?

Rabbi S. H. Sonnenschein, Missouri: I would refer to one thing which has been overlooked in this discussion in speaking of the causes of insanity. We sometimes hear the cause of insanity laid at the door of civilization. A great many

say: Abolish half of the text books in our schools, as our children are compelled to learn too much; too great a mental strain is put upon them, and it is no wonder there is a great tendency to insanity in these later years. I, for one, hold that the apparent increase of insanity, pauperism and all that, is not so much the effect of excessive civilization, or greatly increased mental or physical life, as from the altered conditions of life in which we live.

In an enlightened, liberal country like ours we establish institutions for these classes of people, and it may seem that there are more paupers, not because there are more paupers in fact than before at any time, nor because these institutions make them so, or make them idle and lazy, but because it is so much easier for these people to make themselves known and to receive aid as paupers. In Spain there are more paupers in proportion than in the United States, but we see them more here — they herd together more. So it is with insanity. I am sure there are much less insane people now-a-days everywhere than there were one hundred years ago when all causes of insanity worked greater mischief than they do to-day. We are better educated now in regard to the holy laws of motherhood than ever before, the mothers are better cared for and much insanity prevented. But in these days the insane living in the backwoods counties, who in former years would never be heard of here, now come to Madison to the state hospital for the insane and you see them here. They are better taken care of under our higher civilization than ever before, and many are classed as insane who would not have been so considered before. And taking all these things into view, I do not think there is half as much insanity now as there was one hundred years ago, and that civilization is not the cause of an increase of insanity.

Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, Ohio: I think the paper read this morning was in the right direction, and I can endorse every word of it. I think the country ought to understand that insanity is on the increase, and that it is a disease of civilization. I want the people to understand some of these things, and, as

said by the lady in regard to the matter, "If we would go to the bottom, and make information in regard to these matters a part of the curriculum in our common schools, insanity would be decreased. I think the gentleman who spoke last has made a mistake and that he will find it so, but there are gentlemen here who know a thousand times more about it than I do. I would like to hear a word from Mr. Sanborn, who has made a careful critical study of the subject.

A DELEGATE thought it is too early in the history of this country to arrive at the truth in regard to this matter. We have had statistics for only about fifty years. We have none of one hundred years ago. Let us have statistics for five or six generations and we shall be in a better condition to arrive at correct conclusions; at present it is too early, our country is too young.

PROF. A. O. WRIGHT, Wisconsin: It is said that insanity is a disease of civilization. I have recently been reading extensively in relation to the history of barbarism, and, without going into details, the impression I gained from that is that there is just as much insanity among savages as among the civilized; but that the stern law of the survival of the fittest weeds out the weakest amongst savages, whereas, among the civilized, we keep them alive. We keep the insane on our hands, whereas in a barbarous community they would be killed either directly by violence or indirectly by neglect.

DR. CLARK GAPEN, Wisconsin: In reference to that particular point, I wish to say that statistics show a positive increase in insanity. In uncivilized Madagascar there was no need of an insane asylum among those millions. We may say that is a barbarous country, but that is not true. The laws there protect life, and to such a degree that the insane can't be weeded out in that way, so I think we have something in civilization that tends to produce an increase of insanity. The causes of insanity are many and increasing. Intemperance is one great cause, and then the vexations, the worry and anxiety of life. And often when a patient is brought to the hospital some insufficient cause is given for the insanity of the individual, but

if we should follow up the causes we should find at the bottom a nervous, unstable organization. I think there is a great deal in the idea of an insane temperament. I think there may be a hereditary derangement, and then there are the influences of bad living, intemperance, and the non-use of those advantages they have by nature; and then comes along some slight cause, some disappointment in affection, some great care, or the burden of some responsibility that has not been borne before. A cause that may be trifling in itself may be the apparent exciting cause to us, but back of it there has been a long train of preparation acting on the nervous system of the individual, or inherited from parents — a condition that is best described by the term temperament.

In regard to the remarks of the lady from Washington about child-birth and its relation to insanity, I think that those mothers who become insane from bearing numerous children, are not fitted to bear children in the beginning; that their organization is such as to render them liable to break down in passing through the great trials and troubles of frequent child bearing and they become insane. I think they are not fit to bear children at all, and if they bear children they are liable to insanity.

I have known of four generations of a family in succession that had members in the insane asylum. I can point them out now; and these three or four generations supplied as many as twenty or thirty — a grandfather, five sons, four grandsons, and these sons each had insane children. Every one was represented in the asylum. They were comparatively intelligent people.

Another point: Insanity don't come from the intelligent classes so much, but from the vices of civilization and the neglected influences of civilization. If you give a family wealth it puts them above the necessity of physical activity; the daughter grows up physically good for nothing; and then you subject that daughter to the strain of hardships, trials, anxieties, and her organization succumbs — as in child-bearing, for instance. These conditions are largely bronght about by

the absence of those influences which nature has thrown around them to protect the individual. Insanity also generally comes from the lower classes.

Dr. J. W. Walk, Pennsylvania: I wish to say a word in general indorsement of the gentleman from Wisconsin. My life has not been a very long one, but long enough to see the classes of insane expanded to bring in thousands who were not included when we first began to get statistics of the insane. Take the mass of men and they are on a much higher plane of humanity than former generations, and it would take a great deal of statistical information to convince me that civilization is producing insanity. It is not very long ago since men who were in the habit of drinking were simply regarded as immoral and worthless, now we call such a man a dipsomaniac — insane. A few months ago there was placed in the insane asylum a classmate of mine — but that is not the reason he was sent there, (Laughter) — neither was it caused by our civilization, but the result of opium eating. It is not long since that was included in the catalogue, and if they go on including different conditions under the head of insanity of course the catalogue will be a great deal longer. If all the defeated candidates or others, who are in distress of mind, were included, of course all of us might be afraid. I have not a word against the paper read by the lady from Iowa. I think that it is an admirable paper in its methods and suggestions, but I think there is nothing to be gained by taking a pessimistic view. But the subject should be considered in the best light of science, and for that reason I endorse the suggestions of the gentleman from Missouri.

(The debate on Insanity was continued on Tuesday afternoon after the reports for states had been heard.)

TUESDAY AFTERNOON SESSION.

Reports from the Eastern and Middle states being in order, the following were received:

REPORT FOR MASSACHUSETTS.

BY F. B. SANBORN.

Having been delegated by this board to represent it in this Ninth Annual Conference, it falls to me to report concerning the condition of Massachusetts in respect to its charitable and correctional system. But this I must do briefly, nor will it be necessary to report at much length, for few changes have taken place during the year since our conference met in Boston, when the Massachusetts system was so fully described and its charitable establishments and prisons so thoroughly inspected by members of the conference.

The population of Massachusetts at the present time is not less than 1,850,000, an increase of nearly 50 per cent. since the close of the civil war in 1865, yet there has been no such corresponding increase in the number of public dependents during that period, except among the convicts, the insane and the motherless infants, in all which classes the percentage of increase since 1865 has been more than 50 per cent., and in some of them nearly a hundred per cent. The insane, under the supervision of this board, have increased in our hospitals and asylums from less than 1,800, in 1865, to nearly 3,500 at the present time. The two departments of a single state hospital, at Worcester, now contain nearly 1,100 patients, which is more than the three state hospitals at Worcester, Taunton and Northampton contained in August, 1865. But on the other hand our four state alms-houses, seventeen years ago, at this season of the year, contained 1,800 inmates, where there are now but 1,450, and our state reformatories then contained 615 pupils where there are now less than 170. Of this decrease in the reformatories and its causes, I shall speak hereafter. The present aggregate of persons under the supervision of this board in the state establishments is something more than 4,600, though only about half this number are supported by the state.

To show the condition of things in the state at large, as compared with last year, in respect to pauperism alone, I have collected returns from more than 300 towns and cities, giving their pauper census on the first of July, 1882.

PERSONS SUPPORTED IN 313 CITIES AND TOWNS.

	Fully.	Of these Insane.	Partially.	Tramps.	Total.
1882	6,475	2,304	11,929	57	18,461
1881	5,925	2,127	11,328	143	17,396
Increase	550	177	601	*86	1,065
		19 CITIES.			
1882	3,447	1,374	6,082	23	9,552
1881	2,974	1,276	5,648	108	8,730
Increase	473	98	434	*85	822
		294 TOWNS.			
1882	3,028	930	5,847	34	8,909
1881	2,951	851	5,680	35	8,666
Increase	77	79	167	*1	243

A comparison of these aggregates will show that there has been an increase in the whole number of paupers reported of something more than 1,000 during the year ending July 1, 1882, but that this increase has been almost wholly in the cities of the commonwealth, where the whole number of persons fully supported has increased more than 12 per cent., and the insane fully supported have increased almost 8 per cent. during the year. In the towns, large and small, the same poor fully supported have not increased at all, while the insane have increased 9 per cent. during the year ending July 1, 1882. The annual returns from the whole state for the year ending April 1, 1882, show that the number of paupers fully supported and their cost has increased considerably; the total cost of full support by the cities and towns being now more than $900,000, of which about half is for the support of the insane. The number and cost of persons partially supported during the year ending April 1st, was a little less than for the year preceding, and the whole net cost of pauperism in the cities and towns was about $1,460,000. The additional cost of pauperism, paid from the state treasury, is about $300,000, so that the total cost of pauperism in Massachusetts may be stated as $1,750,000 annually, or a little less than $1.00 for each inhabitant.

The number of persons confined in all the Massachusetts prisons July 1, 1882, was 3,750, of whom 3,008 were men and 742 were women. At the corresponding date in 1865 these prisons contained less than 2,000 persons, of whom 1,350 were men and 650 were women. There has been, therefore, in these seventeen years an increase of more than 175 per cent in the male prisoners, and more than 13 per cent in the female prisoners. The number of convicts for high crimes now remaining

* Decrease.

in our prisons is more than twice as great as it was at the close of the civil war. The actual number in our two state prisons July 1, 1882, was 681 men and 231 women.

Without dwelling further on the complicated pauper system of Massachusetts, which is still as we are told, better administered than any other pauper system in America, let me offer some remarks on

THE PENAL AND REFORMATORY SYSTEM OF MASSACHUSETTS.

The foundation of the reformatory system of Massachusetts as a whole, is of course our system of compulsory education, which has long been established by law and which is tolerably well carried out upon the whole, although there are many children, who for one reason or another escape its operation and do not attend the public schools for the time required by law. In order to supplement the public school education for this class of children, many of whom are truants, our laws for the last twenty years and more have authorized the establishment of truant schools of two or three kinds, the strictest of which are in fact local reformatories to which children are sentenced. The number of these local reformatories has been gradually increasing for the last twenty years, and although it is not yet very large, it has played a useful part in the Massachusetts system, by restraining many children from evil courses and by stimulating parents and other relatives to take better care of truant children, and thus prevent them from the disgrace of a sentence of imprisonment.

Meantime there had been established in Massachusetts many orphan asylums and homes for children, supported by private charity, and at least two large reformatories for boys, and one of smaller size for girls, which were maintained at the public expense, and received children and young persons under sentence from the courts. These public reformatories were, first, The Boston House of Reformation, established more than fifty years ago and maintained wholly by the city of Boston; second, The State Reform School for Boys at Westboro, opened in 1848 and maintained chiefly by the state; third, the State Industrial School for Girls, at Lancaster, established in 1856, and maintained chiefly by the state.

The Boston House of Reformation, though receiving chiefly boys, has had for many years a small department for sentenced girls. There are also smaller municipal reformatories in the cities of Lowell and Lawrence, and there are several private reformatories maintained by Catholics or Protestants, which receive boys.

Several of these public reform schools for sentenced persons have been at times very large. The Westboro school contained in 1859–60, nearly 600 boys, and after the school ships, or Nau-

tical Reform School grew up as a branch of the Westboro School, the number of boys at the two establishments in the year 1867 sometimes exceeded 600. At the same time the number of girls at Lancaster rose to about 150. The number of pupils in the Boston House of Reformation sometimes exceeded 350, so that there were in these large public reformatories, fifteen years ago, nearly or quite a thousand pupils of both sexes. It had then been found by long experience, that many evils attended this large aggregation of so many children in large establishments, and consequently an attempt was made by legislation and the administration of the public establishments to introduce a material change of system. This new legislation began in 1866, and has been carried on pretty steadily by successive enactments and the constant enforcement of the new laws, until the situation in Massachusetts has now materially and permanently changed.

There are at present but 300 boys and girls in the three or four public reformatories which in 1867 contained 1,000, and such is the method of procedure in the courts which sentence these children and in the different communities of Massachusetts with regard to placing dependent and delinquent children in families, that it hardly seems possible that we should accumulate in fifty years so large a number as we had in these great establishments fifteen years ago. How has this great change been brought about, and what have been its results?

The first important step was the establishment of what we call the State Primary School for the reception and education of children who were formerly allowed to remain in the state almshouses, associating with paupers and vicious persons. Care was then taken to have all the children who had been placed out in families from the state alms-houses, the State Primary School and the State Reformatories visited, their condition inquired into, and better places found for such as were neglected or abused. This was a considerable work at first, and it was two or three years before it could be completed and steadily kept up. Meantime laws had been passed — in 1869–70 — authorizing the presence at most of the courts where young offenders were araigned for trial, of some officer representing the state, who should investigate the case, secure a fair and friendly hearing for the child, and take charge of such, in the name of the State Board of Charities, as it did not seem best to have sentenced to a public reformatory. This part of the state system has been actively enforced and has been one of the chief causes why the number in our great reformatories has so much diminished.

About two years ago the appointment of women, as official visitors in the families whither girls were sent, introduced a more active investigation concerning the places provided for dependent children of both sexes, and has greatly promoted

among the community a better knowledge of the whole system of caring for the poor and vicious children. The results on the whole have been very gratifying, but of course there have been many difficulties and drawbacks in a work of this kind. We are satisfied that the principle adopted here is a good one, and that with the requisite time and personal attention it can be made to work well anywhere. But one of the immediate and natural effects of sifting and classifying and keeping away from the establishment all children who could be provided for elsewhere, has been to make the class of children actually sent to establishments a peculiarly hard and vicious class; consequently we have had among the few hundred boys and girls, lately confined in the state reformatories, more vice, insubordination and general difficulty of management than perhaps ever happened before. The pupils in these schools are now more distinctly than ever before of the class for whom prison restraint is usually thought to be necessary, and for many of them there is no doubt that a well-managed reformatory prison would be better than an open reform school on the family system, such as we have at Lancaster and in part at Westboro.

Our modes of administration in some of these establishments, particularly that at Westboro, have been faulty, and have increased the difficulties above pointed out, but, if I have made myself understood in this very abbreviated statement of our Massachusetts system, you will see that most of the difficulties arise from the nature of the case. A reformatory system such as I have described needs to be supplemented and strengthened where it is weak, by a strict but thoroughly reformatory prison system. Towards this we are striving in Massachusetts, and have already succeeded in establishing for women a reasonably perfect penal system, which culminates in the prison for women at Sherburne. We now lack and are seeking to obtain an actual prison discipline for men, which shall be as good, and we are also striving to make our prison discipline for both sexes as effective in practice as it is held to be in theory.

The prison system of Massachusetts is at present in a peculiar situation, yet perhaps no more peculiar than those of most other American states; that is to say, though nominally a complete system with primary prisons, prisons for short sentenced convicts and state prisons, there is no practical unity in the system for administrative purposes. In theory our Massachusetts prison system is reformatory and contains most of the accepted principles and devices of a reformatory system; but it is only with regard to sentenced women that these principles and measures have taken a reasonably full effect. The Reformatory Prison for Women at Sherburne, which the conference examined for itself last year, and an account of which will be found in the proceedings for 1881, is more strictly managed for the reformation of its inmates than any Massachusetts

prison which I have ever known in an experience now of nearly twenty years. Its discipline is admirable and upon the whole effective, and if a discipline correspondingly good could have been introduced into the state prison for men at Concord four years ago, when that prison was first opened, there would have been no opportunity for the recent revolt there. Concerning this, however, exaggerated reports have gone abroad; the fact being that it was never a dangerous mutiny, though a noisy and annoying interruption of the daily work of the prison.

The causes of this revolt appear to have been various, but the contract system of labor, as at present carried on in the Massachusetts state prison, is mainly responsible for it, directly or indirectly. Under the contract system various abuses had grown up, such as over-work by the convicts, recompensed in such ways as interfered seriously with discipline; the introduction of contraband articles into the prison, and the feeling among the convicts that they could cause the removal of a Warden or subordinate officer by making noise enough against him. In this they seem to have been encouraged by persons in the employ of contractors, and even by some of the prison officers. The lack of proper classification among the convicts is also, indirectly, a cause of revolt, and the prison cannot be successfully managed until its inmates are better classified. The cost of carrying on this prison is somewhat greater than last year, and the cost of the state prison for women somewhat less. The State Reformatories and the Primary School, which is now connected with them, have never cost so little in the aggregate as this year, nor so much when the average number of their pupils is considered.

STATE PROVISION FOR MOTHERLESS INFANTS.

Massachusetts is peculiar thus far in its care for this class of public dependents, for whom it provides more thoroughly and successfully at present than any community within my knowledge. The system followed has been the growth of years, but has only of late reached its full development and shown what can be done by intelligent and humane care to preserve the lives of foundling and deserted children. Formerly this class of infants nearly all died; not more than 25 per cent. apparently having survived until their third year; nor was it deemed probable from the experience of other communities that more than half of them could be kept alive under the best system. But under the present management in Massachusetts the mortality of this class of children under two years of age has certainly been reduced to less than thirty per cent., and apparently to less than twenty-five per cent. in a given year.

During the two months just closed (June and July, 1882), out of about 190 infants of this class less than two years old,

only seven have died, although the summer has been rather unfavorable to infant life, especially in cities, and although the month of July is generally that in which our largest infant mortality occurs. Among a number of such infants so great as this fifteen years ago, under the old alms-house management, not less than 25 would have died in two months such as these. But in fact under the old system no such an accumulation of infants was possible, so rapidly did they die.

The chief features of the present system are: (1.) The reception of the motherless infant as soon as it is thrown upon the public for support, without that delay of a day or two which formerly attended its removal to a public alms-house. (2.) The boarding of as many of these infants as possible in single families, well selected and well supervised. (3.) The constant visitation of these families by experienced medical officers, both men and women, who prescribe treatment and remove such infants as are unsuitably placed. (4.) The investigation of all cases, and, if necessary, the prosecution of parents who desert their children, thereby preventing in many cases the separation of the child from the mother; and, (5.) General good sense, fortified by long experience in all the details of the management of these infants.

The actual number of these motherless or deserted infants supported by the state August 1, 1882, is 179, of whom all but 25 are less than two years old. The whole number under care during the month of July was 187, of whom only three died during the month. The average cost of supporting these infants is something less than $3.50 a week. They are distributed through about forty cities and towns, and in no one place are there so many as ten. The number supported a little more than two years ago, when this system first went into operation, was about 100; since then the increase has been rapid, but has now been checked by a law passed in May, which punishes severely the desertion of infants by their parents, and requires the registration of all infants farmed out by parents or relatives. I would call the attention of the Conference to this legislation, which is something new in Massachusetts and may be thought worthy of enactment in other states.

REPORT FOR MAINE.

BY MRS. E. A. DICKERSON.

In presenting to this "National Conference of Charities and Corrections" some account of the Charities of Maine, I have departed somewhat from the established order of things; for in looking over the last proceedings of this distinguished body, I decided that as the statistics of the present would not vary materially from those of past years which have been ably presented and already published by this association, I would give, what if you please we will call a "bird's-eye view" of *Charities* of Maine, leaving to our more experienced Secretary, Rev. J. K. Mason, the work of reporting the Penal institutions, which he very kindly offered to do.

Among our most expensive Charities, "The Maine Insane Hospital" ranks first. The work in this Institution has been greatly improved since 1874 through the efforts of a visiting committee appointed by Gov. Dingley according to an act of the Legislature that year for the better management of the institution and the protection of its inmates.

Two members of the Governor's Council with one woman constitute this committee, under whose advice and supervision a great number of improvements in the management of this unfortunately increasing class, have been introduced. The first woman appointed on this committee was Mrs. G. W. Quimby, of Augusta, who served faithfully for five years or more. She is now on the Board of Trustees — her place on the Committee being filled by Mrs. M. F. Whidden, of Calais.

A leading feature of the visits of this committee is to make the *personal* acquaintance of as many of the patients as possible, seeking the confidence of all, in the belief that a better knowledge of their condition and treatment could in this way be obtained, and the result has justified the belief. The committee also correspond with the friends of the inmates, who previous to this time had no means of obtaining information concerning their unfortunate relatives, save through the officers of the hospital.

Locked letter boxes bave been placed in all the dining rooms accessible to all the patients, who in this way can communicate with any friend or member of the committee. They have been regularly opened and the contents carefully noted. All complaints found therein, or made verbally, have been enquired into, and, when appearing to be other than the fancies of diseased minds, have been promptly reported and acted upon.

The committee report a marked improvement in the details that tend to enhance the pleasure and promote the recovery of patients.

Wheel and invalid chairs have also been introduced upon recommendation of this committee, adding greatly to the comfort of those who need to use them. Pictures have been obtained, games introduced, and entertainments provided both musical and literary to increase the happiness and pleasure of the inmates, both male and female.

Although the fire of investigation burned brightly during the trials of 1881, the trustees in their last report are pleased to state that they take pleasure in saying that "they believe the Maine insane hospital is gradually year by year reaching a higher place of usefulness and more completely accomplishing the high mission for which it was intended."

Of the Maine general hospital I can only state that it has been in successful operation about eleven years, and never more successful than at the present time.

The last report states that during the year 328 patients have been under treatment, since the publication of which there has been an increase of some 40 patients, making a larger number in the hospital than ever before. There is also a large and increasing demand for free beds, which demand is being met by private charity, supplemented by state aid, the last appropriation being five thousand dollars.

Surgical cases predominate as a matter of course, but the hospital is so well established in the confidence of the people, that medical cases are on the increase, with the prospect that they will largely continue in the future.

One of the visiting surgeons writes me that the great need of the institution is "more money." This complaint seems chronic all over our state — and in this I do not assume that we are an exception.

Another of the important charities of our state is the Pension Agency, by which not alone the "Boys in Blue" are personally benefitted — but their families. Their number is constantly diminishing; there is still a very large demand for state aid — the number of applications for 1881 being 796, of which number 543 were allowed — involving an expenditure of nearly $18,000.00 ($17,843.50).

In this same class of charities is the Military and Naval Orphan Asylum at Bath. The trustees state that the purposes for which this institution was established, appear still to warrant its continued care by the state, and to vindicate the wisdom of the bounty so directed.

There are so many soldiers enfeebled by the hardships of the field who have lingered along and are dying every year, really victims of the war, and leaving young families in a dependent condition, that this Home finds no lack of material for its benevolence.

Though as the years go by, it will undoubtedly be a wise

movement to so amend the charter as to make it an asylum for other than soldiers' orphans.

In this pleasant Home with its large airy rooms, and really beautiful surroundings, the lives of these children are made happy and pleasant, and the managers are doing all in their power to fulfill "the pledges made to the men and women who were called upon to surrender their own comfort to the well-being of the nation."

The Childrens' Home at Blengoe is largely a private charity, having a permanent fund of some $43,000, and then it receives an occasional appropriation from the legislature in consequence of providing a home for a limited number of soldiers' orphans. The object of its founders is to take charge of, feed, clothe and educate, a class of children deprived of the blessings of a home, and the opportunities favorable to becoming good men and women, and useful members of society; in this, the school has been largely successful; in that it is estimated that fully ninety per cent. of the children become respectable citizens.

The officers of the Home state that judging from the appearance, and what can be learned of the children who have gone from the Home and returned on a visit, they bid fair to take as high a position in society as the average of children in our community.

The St. Elizabeth Orphan Asylum, Portland, also the Female Orphan Asylum, each receives a small appropriation from the state. The work is mainly by individual effort and private charity.

The homes for "Aged and Indigent Women" form one important feature in the charities of our state, among which may be mentioned The State Street Home in Bangor, which has a fund of some $25,000; a fine building and everything so well established as to be reckoned a permanent institution, all of which is due to the liberality of the citizens of Bangor.

Another well endowed home is situated in Bath, which has accommodations for only 8 inmates, but such accommodations as anybody's mother might be glad to possess; large airy "corner rooms," situated on an eminence overlooking the finest part of the city, with flowers growing abundantly in windows and garden, an abundance of the best of food while in health, and good nursing in sickness; 'tis no wonder that of this home it is playfully said: "No one ever dies."

St. Mark's Home at Augusta is another home where indigent women are provided with the comforts of life. There the inmates are expected either themselves or by their friends to pay a nominal sum per week, thus aiming to stimulate charity in others toward their own friends and relatives.

The National Soldier's Home at Togas, near Augusta, is a place full of interest and abounding in large charities, but hardly within the scope of a state report.

A temporary home for women and children has been recently organized in Portland.

There are still other Homes more or less flourishing, of which no definite reports are available.

These are but samples of the work that is being done in all our large towns and cities, while all over the state — in the small as well as the large towns — may be found the great and increasing W. C. T. U. army of workers, who gather up the fallen from among all classes and reach out strong arms and helping hands to the victims of intemperance everywhere. One of the grand results of their work in Portland, is the establishment of a Family Inn, and the employment of a police matron.

Maine has no asylum for the deaf and dumb or blind, but makes provisions for them in the institutions of other states for which she last year paid $13,408.00.

A similar provision is made for the feeble minded, though the appropriation is much less.

In the annals of our poor we also find lo! the poor Indian, of which there are the remnants of two once powerful tribes, still within our borders — the Penobscots, of Oldtown, numbering some 416 persons, and the Passamaquaddys, on or near a Bay of the same name, numbering some 520. For the former tribe our last legislature appropriated $8,309.70, and for the latter $5,690.00, making an aggregate of $13,999.70 or nearly $15.00 per capita.

In closing allow me to present to you as briefly as possible, some account of our Industrial School for girls at Hallowell.

The school is designed as a refuge for girls between the ages of seven and fifteen years, who by force of circumstances or associations are in manifest danger of becoming outcasts of society. It is not a place of punishment, to which its inmates are sent as criminals by criminal process — but a home for the friendless, neglected, and vagrant children of the state, where, under the genial influences of kind treatment, and physical and moral training, they may be won back to ways of virtue and respectability, and fitted for positions of honorable self-support, and lives of usefulness.

The institution is a corporate body, in which the state is represented by the Governor, Secretary of State and Superintendent of common schools.

The state has provided by statute law for the custody and education of wayward and exposed girls therein, and *aids* in their material support. Though it by no means takes upon itself the entire charge of their moral or material prosperity which is left largely to private charity. One lady gave $10,000, by which munificient gift the establishment of the present school was made a success — others have given smaller sums — and still more is greatly needed. In fact, a committee have at this

time the work in hand and are actively engaged in raising funds for an additional building to provide accommodation for the constantly increasing numbers and provide facilities for classifying the girls and grading them according to age, behavior and acquirements.

From the opening of this school in January, 1875, to January, 1882, some 150 girls have been received into the home; of that number fully 90 have been provided with permanent or temporary homes in private families, only 3 dismissed as incorrigible, 1 escaped from the school, and 6 married.

All the domestic work of the institution is performed by the pupils, under the immediate and personal supervision of officers who are a matron, assistant matron and housekeeper. Each pupil has a separate room, comfortably and neatly furnished, for the good order of which she is personally responsible. In fact a sort of good natured rivalry exists between the different inmates, as to whose room shall bear off the palm for neatness and general good order.

I am told by the matron that a vulgar or profane word is very seldom used by these girls, while their behavior and general bearing is orderly and free from rudeness to a degree that is surprising, when we consider the class of society from which they are taken. During my own visits to the school, nothing has surprised me more than the civility and prompt obedience of the children. Regular habits combined with the benign and naturally healthful influences of the school, effect a rapid and radical change in the character of these girls, and it would greatly surprise one unfamiliar with this work to know how great and rapid these changes are, in very many instances.

BY J. K. MASON, D. D.

To the officers and members of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, assembled at Madison, Wisconsin:

At a late day I have found it impossible to be with you to make some statement with regard to the penal and charitable institutions of Maine, and participate in the deliberations of your annual session,

Governor Plaisted has taken a deep interest in the welfare of those institutions, and he sent to me an early appointment to represent the state in your body. I hoped that my declination might reach him in season for the appointment of a substitute. I fear it did not. But he had taken the wise precaution to appoint a lady eminently qualified to represent the several charitable institutions, viz: Mrs. E. A. Dickerson, whose late husband was an honored judge in our supreme court for many years. She will be present and prepared to give an intelligent account.

Some good work has been done during the year, of which Mrs. Dickerson will report, treating especially of all except the specially penal, viz: the penitentiary, the county jails, and the Reformatory School for Boys. While I speak of these as specially *penal*, I wish to be understood as using the term in a relative sense. The inmates are criminals suffering the legal penalty affixed for their crime. But the aim is meantime, to subject them to such discipline as is adapted to effect their genuine reform. Unquestioning obedience, industry, education and religion, we consider important factors. Without them no true reform can be effected. With them we have found that there is very much to be hoped for.

In an acquaintance of fifteen years with penal institutions, I have found that their inmates are made up very largely from the ungoverned, idle and ignorant classes; and who, as a rule, have had very little moral and religious training. The term religious I use in no sectarian sense. I have noticed also, in our own and other states, and in other counties also, that wherever these four factors have been combined in due proportion in the discipline, there has appeared the fullest measure of success. We have endeavored to combine them in ours; and we have the gratification of seeing a large per cent. of those discharged therefrom permanently reformed.

We have few Recidivists in our state prison; only about *eight per cent* ; and, after diligent search, can find but about the same in other prisons sometime discharged from ours. At present the number of convicts in our penitentiary is reduced to *one hundred and fifty-four*, about fifty less than the average for several years. Good food, (frequent *milk* rations — *a new arrangement*), good sanitary conditions, mild but strict discipline, systematic industry and recreation, good instructions in letters and morals within the walls, and healthy prohibition laws enforced outside, are affording us gratifying results.

Several of our county jails are without a tenant, and have been so for months, except as occasionally occupied by some violator of the liquor law for a short period. The workshops connected with several in the more populous counties, have proved both saving and philanthropic adjuncts. What is needed is a more rigid adherence to our jail system, to make it a complete success.

If all our state and county institutions could be removed from the arena of politics, and thus a radical "civil reform" inaugurated, we should expect to make a more worthy exhibit; one of which any state might be proud. But, while the political hand must be allowed its manipulation of all these, we can hardly hope to make much additional improvement.

The State Reform School for Boys, in a diminution of its number, improved deportment, income from industries, mental and moral improvement of the boys, is proving itself entitled

to the sympathy and confidence of the people. The sooner it can make the radical change from the present to the *family system* the more marked and satisfactory will be the results. The average number for the year 1881 was 113. Thirty-four were admitted and forty-one discharged or disposed of by indenture, pardon, discharged on trial, etc. The educational and industrial departments are perhaps as well systematized and achieving as great results as the present facilities warrant the people of the state to expect.

The family system for the boys and the cottage system (similar in principle) for the insane, it is believed should be substituted at the earliest practical day, if we would see the most satisfactory success. Until Maine can inaugurate such reform, and dissociate her institutions from all connection with her politics, she must consent to be satisfied with quite imperfect results.

We do not think a fair exhibit of all our penal, reformatory and charitable institutions altogether worthy of our motto as the "Dirigo State," nevertheless it is one of which we can hardly feel ashamed.

Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, New York: I have been interested in the reports from the states where there is no board, and I feel that New York is interested in them, and that in deference to the gentlemen here I ought not to take the time of this conference, under the circumstances, to refer to the work of the board in New York. But I will anticipate in some directions in which it may become necessary for me to refer to its action in a special direction, and I will content myself with summing up in a very few words. The charities of New York are of three classes: those supported and supervised by the state; those under the control and direction of municipalities; and those controlled and managed by private corporations, aided by the public. In the first are the blind, the deaf and dumb, idiotic and infirm children. In the second are the county poor houses and the city alms houses, and local institutions for the chronic insane. The expenditures last year were about $8,000,000, or $1.60 per capita on a basis of 5,000,000 inhabitants. The average number under care was about 40,000, or one to each 800 of the population. Of this number about 10,000 were insane persons, or one to each 500 of the population. The statistics of the inmates and the expenditures are

embraced at considerable length in the last annual report, and in time will be furnished to all members of this association. The improvements effected in New York during the past year have been quite marked. During this time an additional asylum for the chronic insane has been opened at Binghampton, until now it practically gives us room for all coming under the control and management of the state board of charities. The asylum for feeble minded girls was organized two years ago, and has been enlarged and better adapted to their needs; there are about two hundred girls too feeble minded to protect themselves from the wicked and designing; they are placed in the custody of proper persons and taught such things as their capacity will admit of, and they are regarded as permanent wards of the state. We look on this as one of the greatest advances made. This care extends to those who have reached mature life and have no families to which to send them back and who would otherwise go to the poor house. During this present year another additional branch of the state asylum for feeble minded has been established in connection with that at Syracuse for adult males. Over 100 acres have been secured, and additional buildings are to be added, and a large number of the inmates of the state school are soon to be transferred to this, and there is now provision made to take the more helpless of this class from the poor houses and place them here, so all the feeble minded are to all intents and purposes wards of the state; we take this class and make them a charge on the state, whereas a pauper was a charge on the locality where he was settled. These are the improvements made during the year, and I shall content myself without any further remarks at this time. In regard to the blind and the insane, New York has its policy, and it will give me pleasure during the progress of the discussion to allude to them in the proper order of the subjects as they arise. There is also a reformatory for women at Hudson established during the past year, for which buildings are now being erected.

Dr. Henry Warner, Pennsylvania: I am sorry that Pennsylvania is not better represented than by myself. The gentle-

men accompanying me here are not prepared to report. They did not know that they would be required to make or present any report to the conference. I don't like to see so great a state passed over in silence in regard to its noble charitable and penal institutions. The policy of the state is exceedingly liberal towards its charitable institutions, more than $700,000 being appropriated by the state. This is very largely supplemented by the earnings of the institutions themselves and by local taxation. Pennsylvania has a very mixed population, made up of all classes of citizens, but mostly of those thrown on our shores from foreign countries, who are engaged chiefly in mines and manufactories, and it is from these that the wards of these institutions mostly come, and although the expense of maintaining them is very great, it is met by a corresponding liberality. I have been so lately engaged in the work I do not feel I can say anything to this conference that would be very instructive, but I can say this — that it seems to me a little strange, after listening to the history of this conference and the places of its meeting, that Pennsylvania has been so much overlooked, and I believe it would be much to the advantage of those engaged in this work if the next annual meeting should be appointed for some place within our borders where you can all come and see for yourselves what we are doing.

Dr. J. W. Walk, Pa.: The supervision of the institutions of the state is divided between the state, the counties, and individual institutions. The state has control of the eastern, western and middle penitentiaries, and the insane hospitals. The counties manage the poor houses, and I am ashamed to say that they retain in them children and insane that ought to be in asylums, but there is no legislation to prevent it, and a good many are growing up paupers. We need orphan asylums; we have some, and a portion of them are doing a good work, and in some parts of the state a bad work, and some have been started where they are not needed, and they take children who had better remain under the care of their natural guardians — uncles, aunts, and others responsible for them legally — but they are taken and put into some of these institutions and by

the course of treatment and discipline they receive are made good for nothing during the rest of their lives. Perhaps it may be invidious, but I think I know some in Philadelphia of this kind. I believe in this matter we must get at the truth — the facts — and see where we fail as well as succeed. Philadelphia contains about one-fourth of the population of the state. I think the intention there has always been to help and elevate the poor, but that has not practically been accomplished by the municipal government to the extent desirable. We have never had there the thorough organization they have had in some of the other states. There are 32 departments of government in Philadelphia, under different names, and they all work independently of each other to a great degree, such as the health authorities, the poor, corrections, refuge, etc., and consequently there is a considerable lack of system and harmonious action. I think that is the worst failing of our institutions. As far as the houses of refuge for juveniles and for those of maturer years, and of the penitentiaries for the higher criminals and those of a lower grade, the management is fair, but there is a lack of co-operation among them. But I came here to learn of the other states and study their institutions and management that we may be benefited by so doing.

Rev. J. L. Milligan, Pennsylvania: We have had no new legislation during the past year, and our status is about the same as last year. The building of the eastern penitentiary is going forward rapidly and will be completed soon, and ought to be immediately. Further than this, at present, I will not add to the last report.

REPORT FOR OHIO.

BY WM. HOWARD NEFF.

The Board of State Charities of Ohio respectfully present the following report of the public institutions of the state of Ohio, for the past year:

They believe the institutions are in a better condition now than at any other time within their knowledge, and that they are efficiently, wisely, humanely and economically administered. The local boards are more actively and judiciously interested in the management than ever before. There is less self-seeking, and more devotion to the public welfare. Reforms are welcomed; the best methods are sought out and introduced; a freer exchange of opinion is exercised; a greater regard for efficiency and economy is manifested, and on every side the board notice cheering evidences of progress and improvement. When it is remembered that these institutions are all maintained at the public expense; that the state of Ohio considers her helpless and dependent citizens as the wards of the state, and that the people cheerfully tax themselves to build and to sustain these institutions; and that nearly one-half of the revenues of the state are thus expended, the administration of these charities is perceived to be a sacred trust, of a magnitude and responsibility commensurate with the work performed. While abuses undoubtedly still exist, the eradication of which will be the work of time, yet the board believe that united efforts are steadily and constantly made in the right direction, and that they are fully justified in congratulating the people of the state upon the present condition of their public charities.

The state institutions comprise six insane asylums, one at Athens, one at Cleveland, one at Columbus, one at Dayton, one at Toledo, and one, Long View asylum, at Cincinnati; an institution for the deaf and dumb, one for the blind, one for feeble-minded youth, and a soldiers and sailors' orphans' home. The penal and reformatory institutions are the Ohio penitentiary at Columbus, the reform school for boys at Lancaster, the girls' industrial home at Delaware, the Cleveland and Cincinnati work houses, the Cincinnati and Cleveland houses of refuge, the Toledo house of correction. The number of inmates and the per capita cost of maintenance are given, as nearly as possible, in the annexed table.

Institutions.	Total number for year.	Daily average.	Total current expenses for year.	Cost per capita.
Athens Asylum for Insane	831	607	$101, 884	$170 37
Cleveland Asylum for Insane	864	620	112, 208	171 14
Columbus Asylum for Insane	1, 223	924	166, 920	185 00
Dayton Asylum for Insane	783	626	108, 013	174 13
Long View (Cincinnati), Insane	824	659	81, 014	122 94
North West, Toledo, Insane	175	122	21, 338	174 94
Deaf and Dumb, Columbus	.....	426	82, 511	175 84
Blind, Columbus	228	171	35, 372	206 85
Feeble-minded Youth (fire rendered returns incomplete)	.....	.....	91, 801	.....
Soldiers and Sailors' Orphans' Home, Xenia	715	607	93, 016	153 24
Penal and Reformatory.				
Ohio Penitentiary	1, 794	.....	187, 626	150 10
Reform School for Boys, Lancaster.	734	557	48, 882	126 38
Girls Industrial Home, Delaware	318	255	30, 175	118 33
Cleveland Work House	1, 658	266	33, 682	126 55
Cincinnati Work House	3, 115	500	60, 000	120 00
Cleveland House of Refuge	164	123	12, 410	100 68
Cincinnati House of Refuge	507	251	47, 000	187 25
Toledo House of Correction	239	170	20, 700	121 76
County Institutions.				
Childrens' Homes	1, 334	773	71, 757	91 53
County Infirmaries	12, 345	5, 536	544, 696	101 10
County Jails	7, 597	.....	84, 497	.....
Outdoor relief disbursed by Infirmaries	.....	.....	258, 814	.....
Total	.....	.....	$2, 294, 317	.....

These figures are as accurate as possible under existing circumstances. A uniform system of book-keeping will probably soon be introduced into all the state and county institutions, which will greatly facilitate careful comparisons.

The Ohio penitentiary at Columbus, and the Cleveland workhouse are self-sustaining; that is, the labor of the inmates defrays the current expenses. The necessity for rebuilding the asylum for the feeble minded youth, which was destroyed by fire, prevented an appropriation which otherwise would have been made by the legislature, for enlarging our state provision for the care of the insane. The board of state charities is prepared to suggest a general plan looking toward state care for all the insane; a separate state institution for epileptics, and the custodial care of idiots in connection with the educa-

tion of the feeble minded youth as now provided. When this is done, this latter institution (for the education of feeble minded youth) will, in the opinion of those well qualified to judge, become self-supporting. The board is now giving much attention to the subject of county jails. By law, the plans for all new jails must be submitted to the board of state charities for "suggestions and criticisms," and the new jails where these suggestions are regarded, all provide for the separation of prisoners.

In some of the old jails, whose construction does not admit of the separation of prisoners, for example, that of Hamilton county, the sheriff, under the able direction of the judges of the court of common pleas, has arranged a judicious classification of prisoners, and has enforced cleanliness.

A law passed last winter, which has not yet gone into practical effect, requests the judges of the common pleas court in each county, to appoint a board of five persons, three ladies and two men, to visit the county institutions, and report at stated periods. Much good is anticipated from the execution of this law.

THE PRESIDENT: We speak of eastern and western states. What is comprised in these terms? When I was a boy Ohio was way west, the western limit almost, but we find it long since in the class of middle states. Civilization develops, advances; shall the interests we represent keep pace with it?

MRS. GOV. BEVERIDGE, Ill.: What do you mean by "children's homes?"

MR. NEFF: We have many district asylums, children's homes. Counties are encouraged to combine together, where a county has not sufficient for a separate home. The policy is to get the children out of the infirmaries (i. e. alms-houses). This has reference only to public institutions. We have a great many private institutions.

REV. DR. A. G. BYERS, Ohio: I would like to say, in reference to the question by the lady, we think our system a good thing for our state. We have a law by which each county is authorized to build a home for its poor children and take them off the street and out of the poor-houses and educate them until they can be judiciously placed in proper families. At present we have twelve homes organized, and counties are falling in very rapidly with the idea of this humane and thoroughly practical system for the care of the children.

REPORT FOR MICHIGAN.

BY W. J. BAXTER.

There are no marked changes to report in character or management of the penal and charitable institutions of Michigan since your last annual session.

Some have been more fully developed, some enlarged — and all we believe are being improved and made more fully to meet the wants they were designed to fulfill.

The last legislature, while not enlarging the powers, yet imposed on the board of corrections and charities some important and delicate duties.

The boards of control of all state, charitable or penal institution asking for appropriations for changes in, additions to, or for new buildings, are required before adopting plans to submit the same for examination and report to the board of correction and charities and the state board of health.

It is further made the duty of all boards of control of such institutions to submit in detail all proposed applications to the legislature for appropriating for additions to accomodations and for current expenses, or for appropriations for any purpose connected with their respective institutions — to the board of corrections and charities, whose report on the necessity or propriety of the appropriations asked, must be sent to the legislature with their applications. While the duties of the board are of a nature to attract little public attention, and are performed quietly, inostentatiously and without compensation, other than actual expenses, they have felt that great good might be accomplished by earnest and persistent efforts — and during the past year, more perhaps than at any time since the organization of the board — the members have devoted themselves to the work entrusted to them, and especially by visitation, counsel and advice to reformers in the jails and poor houses of the state.

PENAL.

The states prison at Jackson has 665 convicts, of whom 54 are serving out a life sentence, and 11 are insane and confined in an insane hospital connected with the prison.

The state house of correction at Ionia has 490 convicts — many serving out short sentences of from 3 months to 12 months. All life convicts are confined at Jackson.

Both these prisons are penal in all essential characteristics, all inmates being employed at hard labor for 12 hours per day on the average during the year — generally on the contract system — the state receiving from contractors sums varying

from 45 cts. to $1. per day. Still education and reform are not lost sight of, and obedience, good conduct, and efforts looking toward a better life, are stimulated and encouraged by large allowances of good time to those who prove themselves worthy.

The state having made no suitable provision for female convicts, either at Ionia or Jackson, and there being some criminals of this class, though fortunately they are few, arrangements have been made under the sanction of law for sentencing convicts from any part of the state to the Detroit City House of Correction, and there are now in the Detroit House of Correction for offences against state laws 80 convicts, of whom 51 are females. This institution employs convicts under the direction and supervision of its own officers, and is a source of considerable revenue to the city. Earnest efforts are made for the education and reformation of the convicts, and the prison appears to be in all respects *humanely* as well as most efficiently managed.

PENAL AND REFORMATORY.

The State Reform School at Lansing, though originally constructed with high walls, cells with grated windows, and other prison appliances, and receiving boys of from 10 to 16 years of age, under sentence for crime, under present management, presents no longer any of the appearances or insignia of a prison, but in entire freedom from apparant restraint, in the energy, buoyancy, and youthful joyousness of the inmates, the regularity and cheerfulness of both labor and study, assumes the appearance and possesses the characteristics of a large and flourishing manual labor school, at which any of our sons might receive a useful and valuable training.

Crimes committed in early youth, are nearly always but the natural outgrowth of circumstances and surroundings, for which the child is not responsible, and if a sense of personal degradation can be avoided, a feeling of self respect and self reliance be awakened, and encouraged, as seems to be most successfully done in this institution, many of these children, whose early boyhood was clouded and darkened, will become, not merely self reliant and self supporting, but worthy, respected and honored citizens.

It is a question whether the age at which boys may be sent to this reformatory, should not be changed from 10 to 7 years, for while ordinarily a boy at 10 is quite young enough to be sent to such an institution, there are cases where under peculiarly demoralizing influences and associations, a boy even at the tender age of 10 years, has already become so hardened and brutalized as to afford small hopes of permanent reform.

There are now 347 boys at this reformatory, and such is the confidence placed in them (a confidence be it said to their honor, thus far never once abused), that fully one-half of the

entire number, with no oversight other than one of themselves, designated as leader or monitor for each class, are permitted on every sabbath day, in sections or classes of from 15 to 20 each, to attend service in the churches of their choice in the city of Lansing, about a mile distant.

The inmates of this institution are frequently changed, good homes being found for them as fast as they are fitted to appreciate and enjoy them.

REFORM SCHOOL FOR GIRLS AT ADRIAN.

This reformatory has been opened since your last session, with two cottages completed and occupied, and two more nearly ready for occupancy. A fine chapel has also been erected and set apart for use, with wings that may be thrown into the chapel or closed and used as school rooms at pleasure. The purely cottage plan has been adopted, each of the 4 cottages being complete in itself with kitchen, laundry, school rooms and dormitories, the object being to secure perfect classification and separation. Each girl is furnished with a good sized separate sleeping room, nicely furnished, which she is expected to keep clean and tidy, and may ornament with pictures, etc., according to her taste and ability.

Whether the largely increased expense of the purely cottage plan, over the cottage and congregate combined, as at the public school at Coldwater, will be justified by the increased benefits, remains to be seen.

From the first, or receiving cottage, the inmates will be advanced, according to merit, as evidenced by conduct and attainment, to the 2d, 3d and 4th cottages respectively, the intention being to put them into families and homes only from the higher grades. Girls are received from the ages of 7 to 17 years, on sentence of a court for vagrancy or crime, authority being vested in the board of control, to return, for other disposition, any girls regarded as incorrigibly bad, whose presence might endanger the reformation of the less hardened and more hopeful.

There are now 58 girls in this school, 26 in the receiving cottage and 32 in the second, and while it is yet too early in its history to judge of results, except on theories, the superintendent and board of control are greatly encouraged, and confidently anticipate the permanent reformation of a large percentage of the tempted and fallen brought under their care.

It is thought by some that the name of the institution, "Reform School for Girls," has been unfortunately chosen, as it may, in the after life of these girls prove too unhappily suggestive; and it may yet be changed for one which, while appropriate, will not leave even "the smell of fire upon the garments" of those who through its instrumentality have become truly reformed and virtuous.

CHARITABLE.

The State Public School at Coldwater continues to maintain and justify its position in public estimation, as one of the wisest and best administered of all its public charities. It receives for education and training the waifs of society, children of poverty and want, and often of sin, who but for this or some kindred charitable provision, would graduate from the streets, gutters and poor-houses, into prisons and brothels, or into the great army of tramps and vagabonds who infest and curse society.

From surroundings and poverty for which they are not responsible, they are sought out, cared for, educated and placed in comfortable, virtuous and happy homes, to grow up to independence, usefulness and honor, with no taint from and even no remembrance of early environments.

Notwithstanding liberal legislative appropriations, economy in management, and an earnest desire to provide and care for the largest number possible, still very many children in our state entitled to the benefits of this school, must be turned away, some to street and alley life, and some to such homes as may be provided by superintendents of the poor in their several counties, until either the accommodations of this school are largely increased, a new one built, or the children more rapidly placed in homes. In this last direction, the early placing of children in homes, an earnest effort is being made, through the systematic, intelligent and efficient action of the county agents of the Board of Corrections and Charities in all the counties of the state.

I believe this county agency is peculiar to our state, the Board of Corrections and Charities having an agent in each county in the state, appointed by the governor, who selects only on full knowledge of character and fitness, who in their respective counties must examine as to the facts, and ascertain all the circumstances attending the case of every child under sixteen years of age taken up as a vagrant or arrested for any offense, and who after full investigation reports to the court having cognizance, and advises as to the disposition of the case. He must also ascertain and report upon the fitness of all applicants for children from any state institution, to have the charge of such child, and annually or oftener visit each child bound out in his county from any such institution. He is also always on the lookout for homes for dependent children. The Board of Corrections and Charities propose to call all their county agents together for a conference some time the present fall, in order to secure if possible more efficient action, by consultation with the Board, and among themselves, and probably by securing assistants and correspondents in every township and village in the state.

The state public school is at all times full, the present number being 306, of whom 261 are boys and 45 girls. Fewer girls than boys are sent as they find more ready adoption without becoming a state charge, and when sent to Coldwater, they are more readily placed in homes, than the boys.

THE BLIND.

The asylum for the blind at Lansing has been very much improved during the year, but is not sufficient for even the present wants of the state in that direction.

The number in this asylum is 63, of whom 33 are males and 30 females. The trustees inform us they have already 300 applications for the coming year — with provisions for less than one-half that number.

Substantial progress has been made, and the institution is under careful and judicious management.

THE DEAF AND DUMB.

The asylum for deaf mutes at Flint, is more than full — and must be increased in capacity at an early day, which may easily be done by the erection of cottages on the present grounds, for which there is ample space.

The number of pupils is 248, of whom 134 are boys and 114 girls. It maintains its high position among institutions of the kind, and its graduates find ready employment in avocations suited to their pecular conditions.

THE INSANE.

There are in the insane asylum at Kalamazoo 727 patients — 376 male and 351 female; in the asylum at Pontiac 496 patients — 251 male and 245 female; making in the two asylums 1223 patients. Of these only 128 are private patients, all the rest, 1174, being state and county patients, supported at public expense.

The small number of private patients renders it almost certain that large numbers of these are kept in private asylums in this or other states for want of room in our state asylums.

In addition also to these, there are at least 500 and probably more still retained in county poor houses and insane asylums connected with such poor houses.

The new asylum in course of erection at Traverse City it is hoped will, with the two now open for a time, furnish accommodation for all the insane of the state.

No suitable provision, however, has as yet been made in our state for the criminal insane — and even insane convicts of the worst class — on expiration of sentence have now to be received into our general asylums.

This class of the insane do not belong with, and it seems to us, should never be sent to asylums for the simply unfortunate.

This completes the list of state charitable and penal institutions, and while we may justly congratulate ourselves upon the fact that our young state has already done so much for the unfortunate and the fallen, we are still conscious that much remains undone, that humanity and Christianity requires at the hands of the state. We have no distinctly woman's prison, no reformatory for first offenders from 16 to 30 — like that at Elmira, no institution for the idiotic and feeble minded, no district work houses where all criminals undergoing short sentences for crime may find suitable labor, instead of being kept in enforced idleness in county jails, exerting a corrupting influence on those accused and only awaiting trial in these same jails. Enough remains to be done to arouse all our sympathies and stimulate us to most earnest efforts.

RECAPITULATION.

The number of inmates in our several charitable and penal state institutions on the 20th of May last, when I received reports from each, was as follows:

STATES PRISONS AND DETROIT HOUSE OF CORRECTION.

Life convicts	54
Insane	11
Female	51
Other penal convicts	1,109
Total	1,225
Boys under sentence at reform school, Lansing	347
Girls under sentence at R. S. for girls, Adrian (now 72)	58
Total	405
Deaf and dumb in asylum at Flint	249
Blind in asylum at Lansing	63
Children at state public school, Coldwater	306
State and county patients at insane asylums at Kalamazoo and Pontiac	1,095
Whole number supported by the state at our state penal and charitable institutions	4,973
Or aside from state prison inmates	3,748

While our state is disposed to make liberal provision for all its unfortunates, this number is small in a population in 1880 of 1,636,335.

Our state board of corrections and charities, in addition to visiting and inspecting state penal and charitable institutions, are required annually to visit and inspect each county jail and poor house in the state. This work has been very generally done during the past year.

The county jails are some of them fairly good in plan, construction and equipment, but most of them reflect no credit on the state or the county in which they stand.

All our county jails still serve the double purpose, of places of detention of accused for trial, and places of punishment of convicts on short sentences. They seldom have any facilities for classification or for separation of the accused and the convicted, the first offender and the hardened criminal; but all these classes are not merely *permitted*, but compelled to daily associations, in absolute idleness, and thus these county jails become schools of vice, and open gateways to deeper degradation and crime.

It is to be hoped that not only in our own state, but throughout the length and breadth of the land, under the pressure of public opinion brought to bear upon the subject, these county jails as at present constructed, managed and used, will at no distant day become things of the past.

In county poor-houses general improvement is manifest; children are no longer permitted to associate with older inmates, but are provided with a separate house, with care and instruction from a suitable matron.

The diseased susceptible of cure or permanent relief, are treated at the expense of the state at the hospitals of our State University.

Among the inmates proper of the poor houses, attention to cleanliness is more generally enforced, and efforts to make these county charges more self-respecting, and so more likely to become self-supporting, are persistent and measurably successful.

These poor-honses still contain many regarded as incurably insane; many idiots and many feeble-minded, but a slight remove from idiots, for whose care no suitable provision can be made at these homes, and no proper care provided, and whose presence among and association with the other inmates, has a discouraging and demoralizing influence on the entire household.

I will not venture any attempt to report upon the many very efficient and most valuable private charities of our state. They reach many whom the state would never reach. They pick up, care for and educate nameless waifs, feed the hungry, clothe the naked, supply work to the idle, care for the sick, the feeble, the aged, educate the orphan, and in almost every direction afford sympathy and aid, where there is human want and suffering.

It is hoped some representatives of these various private charities of our state may be present at your sessions and give some report upon your work. How to make charity a blessing and not a curse to the recipient, to afford help under trials and difficulties without leaving a sense of humiliation or impairing self-respect or self-reliance; how to make the recipient of aid

more hopeful, stronger and better for the assistance rendered; this is the great problem to be solved, and it seems to me the boards of associated charities in our large cities and villages are moving in the right direction. When their associations shall have been fully organized and made effective in all our cities and large villages, if wisely managed, and entrusted with the preliminary enquiries, preceding any distribution of public, as well as private charities, if they but realize present promise. We may reasonably hope the days of *harmful*, because *unwise* giving will soon be past, and it may then be said of *charity*, as of mercy, and with equal truth and beauty that "it droppeth "like the gentle rain from Heaven upon the place beneath — "'Tis twice bless'd; it blesses him that gives, and him that takes."

A DELEGATE: Are there county agents in your state, and if so, at what rate are they paid?

W. J. BAXTER: They are paid actual expenses incurred in the performance of their duties under the law. They are also paid $3 in full for each case investigated and reported upon. This includes investigating into facts, circumstances and surroundings of children under 16 years taken before magistrates and accused of vagrancy or crime,a report of the facts to the magistrate, attending examination and trial and advising as to disposition of the case. The report to the magistrate shows character of home and home influences, associates and general habits of the child, whether a first offense, etc. These services may occupy the agent several days, but he receives in the case of each child thus arrested but $3, and actual expenses. He must also make visits and report, on circumstances, situation, etc., of children, when requested so to do by the superintendent of any state institution from which children are indentured in his county, and without special request to make at least one visit to each child so indentured, each year. For one annual visit, and for each visit made on such special request he receives $3, and actual expenses paid out. This amount is however limited to $100 per year in any county in the state except Wayne, in which it may reach $200. The work of the agents is very largely a work of charity.

A DELEGATE: What record is made of these reports.

W. J. Baxter: Informal quarterly and very full annual reports are made to the board of corrections and charities, of their entire action under the law.

Each agent of the board has been furnished by the board of corrections and charities with a good sized record book, with printed headings and a full index, divided into 5 headings.

1st. Name, age, date of arrest, magistrate or court officer, disposition of child as released, returned to parents, fined, sent to reform school, subsequent history, etc.

2nd. Name, age, date of indenture, name, residence and occupation of guardian, etc., and each visit made and the date, and subsequent history of each child indentured from state public school at Coldwater.

3rd. Same particulars with regard to each girl indentured from Michigan Reform School for Girls at Adrian.

4th. Same particulars with regard to each boy indentured from the reform school at Lansing.

5th. Agent's accounts, giving items, dates, when settled, etc.

These books are public records. From them reports are made to board of corrections and charities, and a summary of such reports is published in the biennial reports of the board of corrections and charities.

A Delegate: Does your law authorize your board to dismiss a girl from the reform school for girls who is bad?

W. J. Baxter: The law authorizes committal to this school of girls from 7 to 17, "unless deemed incorrigible." The board of control of this reform school interpret this clause as giving them the authority to determine whether a girl is incorrigible or not and if so adjudged by them, that they have authority to return her to the court sending her, for other disposition.

A Delegate. Then what kind of girls are you going to reform?

W. J. Baxter: Sometimes a girl by her behavior at home or otherwise, is evidently unfitted to associate with those sent for some first offence and yet requires some restraint.

A DELEGATE: What disposition is made of those girls deemed incorrigible?

W. J. BAXTER: One was sent back to the court sentencing her, on the ground that she was on examination by the Board of Control and the physician of the institution, pronounced insane. This is the only instance thus far in which a girl has been returned. Girls otherwise admissible to this reformatory, deemed incorrigible, would be either discharged or sent to the Detroit House of Correction, as we have no distinctive woman's prison, aside from this reform school for girls.

A DELEGATE: How would you determine that girls are unfit to remain in the reformatory?

W. I. BAXTER: It rests with the court pronouncing sentence to inquire into all the facts and circumstances, aided by the investigation and report of the county agent of the Board of Corrections and Charities, and by his recommendation and on such investigation. If she is deemed a suitable subject for the Reform School for Girls she is so sentenced; if deemed incorrigible she is otherwise disposed of.

The Board of Control of the Reform School for Girls however, though they have so far had no occasion to act, interpret the law as giving them authority, on the report of the superintendent, based on the conduct of the girl, and inquiries into her previous conduct and history, at a regular meeting of the Board, which are held monthly at the Reformatory, to determine whether incorrigible or not, and if the decision is that she is incorrigible, to return her to the court which sentenced her for other disposition. As the law now stands I do not think such action on the part of the Board of Control would be justifiable.

DISCUSSION OF INSANITY RESUMED.

F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts: I was very much interested this morning in the discussion of the relation of insanity to civilization, and I thought that taking the two sides together they were presented very well, Mr. Wright maintaining that insanity was as prevalent among the savages as among the civilized; others that it is more prevalent among the civilized, and that it is a disease of civilization. Civilization does not increase insanity so much as it causes the manifestation of it. Insanity is the debris of civilization, what is left, as civilization goes on moving man upward. The savage state in man in many of its features is nothing more than habitual insanity. Its manifestation among civilized men and women is the manifestation of the savage that is left in them. As to the fact of the increase of visible insanity, I think there is no question. Those who think simply that it is more apparent because we have adopted new classifications of insanity and included those formerly covered by opium eaters and other classes that are now recognized as insane, have a certain foundation for their statement; but when all these are set aside, the fact remains that there is a constantly extending amount of insanity. No one who has collected and studied the statistics at different periods I think can maintain that it is not increasing. I have collected the statistics in my own state. Thirty years ago or more we had a very careful census made, more so than any before that time of a like public character. There were about a million of inhabitants at that time. Not since then have we had so complete a census; but since then we have had an insane supervision, so that all who have come before the public officers in any way are reported once a year; so that now we have another way of determining the amount of insanity, but equally accurate as far as it goes. And a comparison between then and now shows that insanity has increased, that is, there are more cases re-

ported, new cases, whether there is an actual increase in the number or not. It may be so; I have never been able to determine it in Massachusetts, nor in any other community.

One reason is because the curability of insanity, spoken of by Dr. McCowen this morning, is a very difficult thing in fact. We thought it would be easy when we established the hospitals, but we don't find it possible to restore so great a number, even when taken early, as formerly thought. The result is that the recoveries and deaths don't equal the number of the new cases arising in the community, and so the aggregate must increase. The only alternative must be in a greater increase in the recoveries, or in the deaths, which is not desirable; but till one or both occurs we shall see the number of the insane increasing. That, it seems to me, is what experience and statistics show us. Also, that certain forms of insanity have not only increased, but have actually developed within a given period. Dr. Ward, and other superintendents present, can tell what is well known to experts in this matter, that certain forms of insanity have developed within the memory of those now living. Take paresis, a peculiar disease, and always fatal. Recovery never takes place in a well marked case of general paresis; and there are other forms of insanity and of nervous diseases which are probably also increasing; but I have never been able to satisfy myself that the recent cases are more numerous than formerly.

Rev. Dr. Dana, Minnesota: I have a criticism to make on the paper on insanity read by the lady. There was too little emphasis placed on the means we should take for the spread of information in communities to prevent the arising of such causes, such as spreading this information through the schools and reaching the parents. A very keen observer of facts in Dakota and Minnesota, has remarked that one of the peculiar causes of insanity in those regions is homesickness, especially among the Scandinavians. They become isolated in these sections, and cut off from their own people and kindred, and they become subject to nostalgia, which results in insanity, often aided by other causes; and so in Minnesota we find that this is

one of the causes which bring inmates into the asylums. It seems to me that this organization might devise some form of managing this class, by information, or by some means of varying their form of life and breaking up its loneliness, a condition in which so many west and north of us are obliged to live. I think it is true that insanity is increasing, whether it is the result of civilization or not, and that we ought to devise some method of diffusing information so as to prevent insanity in many places. And we find it in many families where we would ordinarily say it ought not to occur.

A DELEGATE, from Ohio: One prolific cause of insanity arises from the largely increasing foreign population referred to by the last gentleman; and therein is a grave trouble we have to encounter, and it is also one of the causes of crime, this homesickness among the foreign people. I have found it largely so among the criminal people, and we find it so among the insane people. If any one thinks we had better go back to barbarism, he has not reached that conclusion from observation of the insane; they are not, as a general thing, a very civilized people. I will not venture on the per cent., but there is a per cent. of these insane that occupy places in the public hospitals of the country that never had brains enough to go crazy. They were born weak-minded, and have continued that way until they have become a distasteful burden to their friends, and have gone into the asylums. In the insane asylums of Ohio there are a large portion of foreign people, and they are not the intelligent people that come from abroad as a rule, but they are the low, the illiterate, and in many cases of the degraded classes; and I am sometimes inclined to think that we are in danger of becoming insane from the rising tide of these uncivilized forces. The remarks of Mr. Sanborn strike me as to the point, and that these classes have been left behind by civilization; that they are not reached by our civilization; that they more easily give way in mind, and are thus thrown out on the public care.

PROF. A. O. WRIGHT, Wisconsin: On one branch of this subject Wisconsin differs from many of the states. A part of

the state is comparatively an old state, and a part of the state is new and in process of settlement. The south part of the state has been settled for one generation and the north part of the state is in process of settlement, so that it represents both classes of states.

Last fall I took a complete census of the insane in the state under public care and I found that there were 1,773. Mr. Wines tells me that the census officers found over 2,600. I would like to get their returns and submit them to the local authorities. I think it would be found that, as is sometimes done, the local census takers had watered the stock, because they get pay according to the number reported. In most counties, the county boards, composed as they are of the chairmen of the towns, and the representatives of the cities or villages, find all that are liable to come on the county, and from their reports I find no such numbers. I did not find a total greater than 1,773 of the insane that were under public care on a given day.*

I find that the southern portion of the state contains a much greater proportion to the population, two or three times as much, as in the northern part of the state. That is, there is a greater proportion of the insane in the older portion of the state than there is in the newly settled portion. And I think that this represents it fairly in the United States; that there is more insanity in the older portions than there is in the new. In this state there is about one to every seven hundred while in Massachusetts, there is about one to every three hundred and fifty. Another thing, I see in the southeast counties of this state that were settled about the same time, in neighboring counties, that they vary a great deal in the proportion of

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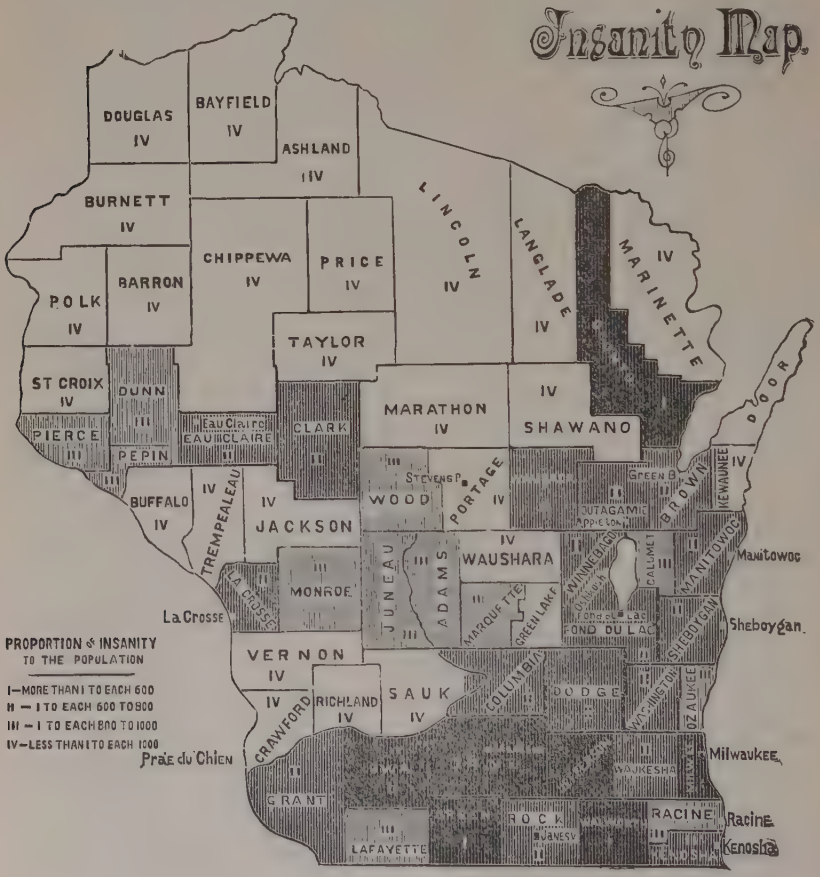
* NOTE.—Following is the map shown by the speaker, showing the ratio of insane, under public care, to the total population in each county in Wisconsin, and the table upon which the work is based. There are no private insane asylums in the state, and all the insane are here cited who are in public institutions of any kind, and also those who are supported at public cost in private families. The only additional insane are those supported by relatives at home.

the insane; and from my knowledge of the circumstances, I think it can be attributed to the difference in the care given them. In Walworth county, for instance, owing to the fact that the very first institution in the state was a little building on the poor farm in that county, the insane were always cared for in a good degree, whereas in Racine county the insane have been treated most inhumanly, and there the number of the insane are much less; that is, I think they have saved lives in Walworth county, and that they have not in Racine county, which partly accounts for the difference in the proportion of insanity in these two counties.



BISHOP ROBERTSON, of Missouri: In the older states we have more of the aged and those who become deteriorated, so that increases the per cent.

DR. VIVIAN, of Wisconsin: According to the doctrine of to-day probably a large majority of us are insane. I suppose there are but a few individuals but have some peculiarities, and our insane specialists tell us that every man that has a peculiarity, any striking peculiarity, is insane. It is my idea that

COUNTIES.	Total insane under public care.	Ratio to population, one to each	COUNTIES.	Total insane under public care.	Ratio to population, one to each
Adams	8	823	Manitowoc	61	605
Ashland	.....	.....	Marathon	8	2,140
Barron	4	1,756	Marinette	5	1,786
Bayfield	1	564	Marquette	9	990
Brown	44	775	Milwaukee	240	577
Buffalo	5	3,106	Monroe	21	1,029
Burnett	3	1,647	Oconto	18	547
Calumet	17	978	Outagamie	42	684
Chippewa	11	1,408	Ozaukee	19	814
Clark	14	765	Pepin	7	889
Columbia	40	700	Pierce	21	845
Crawford	11	1,422	Polk	9	1,113
Dane	89	598	Portage	14	1,266
Dodge	67	685	Price	.....	.....
Door	11	1,059	Racine	37	836
Douglass	1	655	Richland	11	1,652
Dunn	20	841	Rock	53	733
Eau Claire	26	769	St. Croix	13	1,458
Fond du Lac	71	660	Sauk	25	1,149
Grant	59	641	Shawano	9	1,152
Green	37	587	Sheboygan	54	633
Green Lake	12	1,207	Taylor	1	2,311
Iowa	41	576	Trempealeau	15	1,146
Jackson	13	1,022	Vernon	23	1,010
Jefferson	58	554	Walworth	50	525
Juneau	16	974	Washington	37	634
Kenosha	21	644	Waukesha	46	629
Kewaunee	12	1,316	Waupaca	29	723
La Crosse	37	732	Waushara	9	1,410
La Fayette	25	851	Winnebago	54	791
Langlade	.....	.....	Wood	10	898
Lincoln	1	2,011	State at large	47	.....
Totals				1,773	742

this question of the increase of insanity is a little mixed. There can possibly be such a thing as an increase of the number of the insane, and yet be no increase of insanity. That is, there may be an increase of the number of insane persons, because as a rule I believe they outlive the sane, and the relative proportion of the insane to the sane is constantly increasing, but I don't think that the number of new cases of insanity increases in proportion. The gentleman from the northwest seems to think that the insanity among the foreign population is increased a great deal by nostalgia, and seeks some cure. Unless he can transform our broad prairies into hills and mountains he cannot cure the nostalgia of the Norwegians. It is a known fact that persons born and raised among the mountains feel the loss of their native scenery and surroundings more than those who have been raised on the plains. Their love of home seems to be stronger in spite of the ruggedness of their home surroundings, and the fact seems to be that homesickness exists more among the mountaineers than among the dwellers of the low lands. How we can prevent homesickness among them after they immigrate from their mountains to our plains I don't know. It is a very easy thing to say that this or that will accomplish it, but it fails in the application. If insanity is the debris of our civilization, it would be a pretty good thing if all this debris could be destroyed at once. But does not the higher civilization tend to insanity itself? Does not the high wrought civilization of to-day tend to the development of insanity? There is a strong nervous strain and prostration which is sought to be relieved by a resort to stimulants which result in a still greater physical and mental prostration. I could go on in this way speaking of the causes of insanity, but when we come to the remedies or the prevention of it we stumble.

Dr. J. R. Walk, Philadelphia: Do not the barbarous peoples resort to stimulants just as much as the civilized, if not more?

Dr. Vivian, Wisconsin: Do you mean the barbarous white man or the red man? The true barbarian, though, is not

addicted to that extent — I don't know of any barbarous nation that has the means of making intoxicating stimulants so as to make an habitual use of it, and the people that produce it are in the habit of using it continually, the others are in the habit of becoming intoxicated only at intervals.

DR. J. W. WALK, Philadelphia: I think that barbarians generally use it when they can get it. As far as I know anything about the Indian tribes and half breeds, I think they get drunk as often as they get the opportunity, and I dont think there is any prohibitory legislation among them at all.

H. H. GILES, Wisconsin: There is one important factor among the causes of insanity that has not been mentioned at all. As remarked by one of the gentlemen here, a large proportion of the insane that fill our hospitals are of foreign birth. I have studied this question somewhat in Wisconsin and I have come to the conclusion that in cases of insanity among those of foreign birth at least a large majority are made insane in consequence of a low diet. This is specially true of the uneducated, uninformed classes that come here. I have inquired the history of a great many cases that I have seen. They come here with a desire to be rich, and make money. They settle on a piece of land. It is not wholly paid for. They live very closely, sell the best they have and live on the refuse of the farm, which does not furnish the nourishment demanded and the system becomes reduced physically, there is a reaction in the nervous system, and insanity is the result of their manner of life. I think that this practice that has been followed in the new states — at least in Wisconsin — has done more to increase this malady of insanity than all other causes combined. If I were to except any other cause, it is the drugged, poisonous, infernal liquors these men have been pouring down their throats.

MR. ELMORE: And tobacco?

MR. GILES: Yes, and tobacco.

MR. ELMORE: And opium?

MR. GILES: I don't know so much about that from observation.

Hon. M. D. Follett, Ohio: Can any person in the use of his intellect every day work hard enough to become insane? If so, I would like to find it out. The proportion of farmers to professional men is great to begin with. There is one case that comes to my mind that occurred several years since, that seems to show what this gentleman said, that there may be a wrong use of the physical powers and a destruction of them by some stimulant. The case referred to was in the life time of Tom Ewing, between him and his old bosom friend, a man by the name of Carter. They had been fast, intimate friends all their lives; he was a physically powerful man. It was after Ewing had been senator. He wrestled with his farmer friend and threw him hard upon the floor. He said, "I think that is the last wrestle I will ever have; I think you have hurt me." He became insane and died from its effects. Ewing's mind was as clear as a bell till his last breath. The one had become physically deteriorated by the use of alcoholics, the other had not. In the use of their mental powers, unless their bodily powers are in some way injured, do they ever become insane? I think no student becomes insane unless there is connected with it an injury of the physical powers. We know of lawyers who have worked hard, incessantly for days with scarcely an intermission, and then they would go and sleep two or three days to rest and recuperate, and we know that it does not tend to insanity where the proper balance is preserved. And so it is with other men. I might refer to many. Is there, or is there not, always a connection between insanity and bodily injury? I am interested in other subjects, but no more than I am to hear our first thinking scientific men tell us all they can of what insanity is, some of its causes, how to prevent it, and its cure. And I think that if to-day I were to use the definition of "a sane mind in a sane body," that it would not cover one of us, but that we would all in some respects fail. This is a subject I hope some of these gentlemen will further enlighten us on.

Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, Ohio: In regard to insanity being a disease of civilization, I did not mean, when I spoke, that there is no insanity among uncivilized men. I have tried to

get correct information in regard to it, and I think those who have investigated the matter will agree with me that among the barbarous tribes of to-day it is a disease that is very rare. The great traveler, Livingstone, during his explorations in Africa, reported that in all that period of time he never found but two cases of insanity, or heard of them. To-day, as Dr. Gapen spoke of the island of Madagascar, where the native tribes exist, they are under the control and wise government of Great Britain. There are three millions of people, but comparatively no insane. Dr. Beard, of New York, I think it was, wanted to know if statistics would bear out this theory. He made investigations specially among the Sea Islanders along the coast of the Carolinas, and I believe he there found a people nearer barbarism than anywhere else in his search. The negroes of the Sea Islands are very near the native negroes. He reports the number of insane among them very few. They are subject to consumption, rheumatism, and other diseases, but not to insanity. It is suggestive, if it is a fact — not that we ought to go back to barbarism, I don't propose to do that if I find it is true — I have no desire to go back to barbarism; but if it is a fact that these children of nature, these wild tribes in Central Africa, and the red children of our forests, are more free from this malady than civilized people, is it not well that we compare their methods of living with ours, and see why it is they are more free than we are from insanity. This very map here carries out this theory. (Referring to map of insanity shown by Prof. Wright.) You take this state, and as you get under the natural condition of things existing in the modes of living in the northern counties, insanity decreases. But what I intended to say was that in civilized communities, and the more they become so the more cultivated they become, and the more wealthy a community gets the more insanity increases. Take the statistics of the United States and I think it will run very much as this map does. When we look for the brains of this country I am willing to admit that Massachusetts is ahead of us and is the most cultivated and civilized, and I can say that, because so far as I know I have not a drop of Yankee blood in

my veins, and the Dutch of New York, from whom I am descended, had a hatred against New England. I consider Massachusetts to be substantially the brain of this continent. Now the ratio of the insane in this state (Wisconsin), is only about one in 700, while in Massachusetts it is one in 350. These figures are suggestive. When we come to make comparisons the Indian is comparatively free from the vices of civilization. But ever let him come into these vices and he will become subject to insanity, as we are. If we can only be shown how to get rid of the inciting causes we could get rid of insanity. There are those who think that the higher cultivation does not tend to induce insanity. On the contrary, I think statistics show that it does. I think the statistics of England show that; that Dr. Wines showed that two or three years ago. These vices are intemperance and high living. And in this country we have got a wealthy class, men who have large means; they travel, are cultivated, dress in the latest and best, seek the adornment of home, and every one thinks he must have just as good as any of the others; and so they go on in the mad race of life, with no rest by night or by day. Another thing, which if we could get the idea out of our minds would tend to improve our knowledge and skill in treating insanity — the idea that insanity is something to be ashamed of. They used to think a hundred years ago that insanity was the possession of a devil; that an insane man was possessed by an evil spirit, who must be got rid of; and now among the best of us we don't want it known that our relations or friends are afflicted with insanity. We ought to get it into our minds that insanity is a disease, and we have no more reason to be ashamed of it than if they had the consumption or rheumatism. And one great difficulty in dealing with insanity is that it is not brought to the knowledge of the specialist till it is too late; it is kept covered up.

Fred. H. Wines, Illinois: I have been absent during a large portion of this discussion on insanity, and I hesitate to say anything. When we come to discuss the causes of insanity one idea forces itself on our minds more or less, and that is the great matter of the nutrition of the nervous system. If you

do not have a good supply of food the whole system is not nourished, the nervous power is diminished, and the tendency is to insanity. There will be a greater strain on the nervous system, greater than the nutrition of the nervous system will warrant, and you will find that the man is in danger of becoming insane. Then there is another class, those who are overworked, who are carrying on great affairs, or given to great self indulgences or vices, and their powers become exhausted; the nutrition of the nervous system is not equal to the strain upon it. Then there is a middle class, well fed, not overworked, and not so liable to become insane.

L. P. ALDEN, Michigan: Then why is it that there is not insanity among the savage tribes?

F. H. WINES, Illinois: Because among them there is no great strain on the nervous system.

FOURTH SESSION.

TUESDAY EVENING, August 8, 1882.

The Committee on Pauperism having the evening session for the presentation of their subject, their chairman, Hon. H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin, read a paper by C. S. Watkins, of Davenport, Iowa, in that gentleman's absence, followed by a paper of his own, and by a debate, as follows:

PAUPERISM AND ITS PREVENTION.

By C. S. WATKINS, of Davenport, Iowa.

Many years of earnest attention, and some official active connection with cases of vice, crime and misfortune, have convinced me that legislative and individual efforts on these matters should keep in constant view the adage, "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure," and particularly is this necessary in dealing with the general subject of pauperism. Vice may result from evil influences or uncontrollable appetites; crime comes largely from sudden impulse or unexpected opportunities or temptations, and misfortune is generally directly or indirectly an effect of the acts of others; yet in each, and through all of these experiences, it is possible, and in fact is frequently the case, that the individual by sudden resolve and action, will turn over a new leaf and endeavor, with more or less success, to retrace his steps and to regain the respect of society. But pauperism is the last stage in the downhill journey of manhood, and when once reached, the victim is then and thenceforth *sans* pride, *sans* self respect and *sans* ambition.

Pauperism — and in this connection the term must not be confounded with poverty or with any of its synonyms — is, then, the lowest plane in civilized life, and is a condition that, when once reached, the individual is thenceforth to be regarded as one past hope of elevation.

Right here it is appropriate to quote the impressive language of Dr. Charles S. Hoyt. He says: "The causes of pauperism, other than by their own acts, are very few;" thus confirming what we have said, that even vice, crime and misfortune, however brought about, do not necessarily compel or lead to chronic pauperism in cases where the individual really desires to again get above his associations and influences.

But where no such ambition exists, the descent into permanent pauperism is rapid and certain. And with thousands of illustrations of this finality surrounding us, the question comes up, "what should we do in the matter?" Well, let us begin by thoroughly understanding the situation. Pauperism, like insanity, is simply a hideous ulcer in our general social system, and paupers can no more be cured, or their condition prevented by personal punishment, whether mild or severe, than can the insane.

Students of political economy have only recently learned that the more school houses we build, the fewer prisons will be required, but our law-makers do not yet realize that the proper care of destitute, friendless, or ill-trained children, is the best preventive of chronic pauperism in adults. That "the child is father to the man," and that "as the twig is bent the tree is inclined," are more than mere maxims; these are maxims in solid science and cannot safely be disregarded. We therefore must endeavor to prevent pauperism among our native born citizens, by, at the earliest possible age, placing the human twigs from which the pauper tree may possibly develop, within an environment that shall irresistably guide its growth in a direction away from its otherwise inevitable tendency.

Now where do we find these "twigs"? The street children, the embryos of the "dangerous classes" in cities, contribute a large percentage of the material of adult pauperism. The home of the chronic inebriate yields a full share even in the higher walks of society, the household of the wealthy citizen whose children grow up in idleness or with aimless lives, not unfrequently, either in the first or second generations, adds to the class we are considering.

Having thus found a large proportion of the material, we now come squarely to the consideration of the remedies proposed in prevention of such developement.

It is evident that, to obtain the desired results, society, in other words the state, must assume, or be invested with, full powers in the case. The direction in which these powers are to be used, should, of course, be towards inculcating useful, mental and physical habits and tastes, instructing the mind in a system of correct principles and training the body to be governed by them.

The first step, evidently, is the enactment of legislation for what is familiarly known as "compulsory education." Naturally this, to be consistent, further requires that the state shall take from, and relieve, the counties of all destitute and friendless children and juvenile outcasts, and require that instead of the present systems of "binding out," all such children shall be placed in the state institutions provided for such purposes, the state thus assuring to each such child, all needed culture and training as shall tend to future ownership.

There is nothing new in these recommendations and they are placed here chiefly as preliminary to the query: "can anything more than this be done"?

Well, why should not the state have the further power to take the children of immoral, dissipated or criminal parents, from their control and place such juveniles, at the earliest possible age, in properly provided asylums or other educational institutions? My own official experience is that a very large proportion of our criminal and vicious classes and final pauperism, begins in such households; and, harsh as it may, in sentiment seem, to legalize the forcible entry into the domestic sanctity of even such a home, yet every one at all conversant with the habits and careers of children thus influenced and reared, will emphatically testify that the true interests of humanity fully justify the act.

And after all this, the question again confronts us,—"can more than this be done for the prevention of pauperism?" Yes, much more. For our public school system can unquestionably be so improved as to be a much more efficient aid to the self-maintenance and consequent good citizenship of its pupils.

Practically, our present educational system, is merely the sharpening of the tools by which the graduate is to carve his way through life. But sharpening the tools is comparatively of much less importance than instruction as to their use would be, and it is safe to say that a lage proportion of the boys who are annually graduated from our public schools would be puzzled to say specifically, just wherein and to what extent, they were benefited by the education they have received. However we are not now to discuss just this point. We are asking wherein can our public school system, especially in our cities, be made a more efficient aid to the prevention of pauperism and other evils.

And now we present the proposition that our public school system will always fall materially short of its beneficial possibilities until it is made to include some form of industrial training, in every class grade throughout the entire course. The fact that so many of our most successful business and professional men, began their education in our public schools, does not offset the equally indisputable fact that many of our prison convicts, many of our vilest tramps and many of the lowest grades of citizens have had a similar school life. Our school system seemingly gives its pupils that which a large number of them do not know how to properly use after receiving it. Possibly also their school training has, indirectly instilled a distaste for manual labor and a desire to be a doctor, lawyer, clerk, etc., and as our cities are crowded with young men seeking situations, and as each successive annual output from our schools crowds on its predecessors in this seeking, the

unsuccessful, or at least many of them, drift or are forced into the paths that lead towards the condition we are considering. And thus we are brought to the conclusion that an efficient, we are tempted to say, the *most efficient*, preventive of pauperism among our native born population can be secured by adding industrial training in its fullest practicable sense, to the various departments and grades of our school system. And now, as a brief review of our conclusions, we submit,

First. That the best treatment of the subject of pauperism is that which aims at its prevention, by rescuing the children found amid surroundings that tend towards vicious or debased development.

Second. That even such rescue, and even the benefits of the education and influences imparted by our public school system, must fall far short of full efficiency, until to these are added such training and instruction in industrial pursuits as will enable the pupil on leaving school to at once enter some department of profitable occupation.

COUNTY CARE OF INSANE PAUPERS.

By Hon. H. H. Giles, Madison, Wisconsin.

That the incurable insane should have more humane and at the same time more economical care, is a fact which is forcing itself upon the attention of philanthropists and statesmen.

The rapid increase of this class, either by accumulation or by a growing frequency of the malady of insanity, is crowding the question to the front, and, under the system generally prevailing, threatens in the near future a burden of taxation that is appalling to the political economist.

There are causes for the disturbed or diseased mental condition of so large a number of the human family. There are also remedies and means of prevention discoverable in the realms of natural and pathological science; and we can but hope, that in view of the earnest thought and deep research given to all these great questions, that a mastery will soon be gained over the danger that threatens to render the burdens of society quite unbearable.

In the mean time, what shall be done with the dependent incurable insane? Can not we care for them as wisely and humanely, and at the same time more economically?

The insane hospitals of the United States are all, except at Kankakee, Illinois, so far as I am informed, built on one general plan. Each state undertakes to care and provide for all its insane. The buildings provided are used both as hospitals for the acute, or recent, and the chronic or incurable cases. The

increase of the insane has been in excess of the accommodations provided, and there is now no state where the insane are all in state buildings.

Almost irremediable mistakes have been made in dealing with the question of insanity; none perhaps more serious than the attempt to care for all, and to gather both acute and chronic into the same building, and that constructed for a hospital.

While from four to eight dollars per capita per week might not be deemed extravagant for hospital treatment, we must consider that not to exceed thirty per cent. of the inmates of our hospitals are looked upon as curable cases, leaving seventy per cent. as incurable. The tax-payers have reason to complain of the wisdom, or lack of wisdom, of those who planned the existing order of things, especially when they are told that it has required from eight to fifteen hundred dollars per capita to build the houses they occupy.

It is not my purpose to enter into any historical details of insane hospitals, interesting as they would undoubtedly be. Suffice it to say that they furnish us with remarkable instances of epidemic aberrations of the brain.

Another mistake made was in providing for so large a number under one administration. The plan for our hospitals was devised by the American Association of Superintendents of the Insane, and, in the early years of its history, the Association limited the maximum number to be treated in one building to two hundred and fifty, quite high enough. But, as the insane increased in numbers, the maximum was also enlarged, or their ideas expanded, until five hundred were thought not to be too many to be cared for in one institution. Several institutions to day contain nearly a thousand patients. Probably the growing ambition of specialists to be at the head of large institutions may have had something to do with the decisions of the Association.

A large majority of the insane belong to the humbler classes of society, and many are wholly dependent upon public bounty. They were poor in purse and without wealthy friends or relations when misfortune overtook them. Such become the wards of the state and it must bear the expense of their support. That they should receive kind treatment, and their wants be even generously supplied is the dictate of our civilization. How can we most conscientiously, reasonably and cheaply care for them?

As a rule the insane do not lose all memory of early life. Habits acquired in the home circle become second nature, yet in removing patients to hospitals this fact is too often forgotten. The difference in circumstances and surroundings creates a feeling of great unrest, and homesick despondency often aggravates their disease. It has always been urged that insane persons should at as early a day as possible in their malady be

taken to a hospital for special treatment; yet how little individual attention is given to individual cases; how much must be sacrificed to patients collectively. The first experience is that of being placed with from fifteen to thirty other insane persons and compelled to associate with them in the wards and at meals. Comparatively few recover or improve, and the wonder is that the percentage of cures is not even smaller than it is. The whole atmosphere of the buildings and the grounds, however much care may be exercised, is laden with disease. From a common sense standpoint we fail to see any reason, either sanitary or scientific, for aggregating the insane in large numbers. On the other hand it seems to us the height of refined cruelty. It is endured only because it is refined and because it is sanctioned by law and approved by blind philanthrophy.

The state board of charities and reform in Wisconsin has vigorously wrestled with the problem of the chronic insane since its organization in 1871. It early adopted the teachings of the sincere but unwise experts in charge of the insane hospitals of the country, viz.: that all classes should be placed in the same institution and that the state only could extend proper care. In the early years of the board it annually reccommended hospital enlargement to the legislature. But the increase of insane was greatly in excess of the enlargements made. It was urged that an asylum be erected upon the grounds of one of the Wisconsin hospitals of sufficient capacity to take all the chronic insane from the poorhouses. Institutional jealousy, with perhaps other causes, defeated the purpose of the board. In the meantime particular attention had been bestowed upon county poor houses. As their standard of excellence was raised, the condition of the chronic insane remaining in them was improved. The overseers and matrons in studying the cases with a view toward personal influence, naturally became more interested. They soon found that occupation and employment were conducive to quiet and order; that diseased minds should not, any more than healthy ones, be allowed to prey upon themselves. With only a limited number to superintend, it was seen that the peculiarities and idiosyncracies of each could be studied, and the special attention given generally resulted in the awakening of some dormant faculty, or in the glad discovery that a new world had been opened to a darkened soul. The violent were tamed by their own industry, the morose and sullen were lifted out of themselves by their own cheerful occupations, the demented gained strength by their own efforts, however feeble, to do something. In these respects the poorhouses, with a small number, were found to possess decided advantages over the large hospitals, where patients must be treated almost in a mass. The system of non-restraint and light occupation has been very successful

in hospitals also. I will not detail the instances which our records show, but will only state that in Wisconsin the cases of insane paupers, who are able-bodied and not actively employed are the exception in most of our poorhouses.

Objections to this plan are raised because county boards are proverbially stingy and politically designing. It is true that they are composed of many self-prospective candidates for legislative honors, ambitious to acquire a reputation for economy, and who have it in their power to withhold the means for making insane paupers comfortable. But the aid from the state is an incentive to good care and the best conditions in county asylums. It is also argued that inhumanity and even cruelty might be practiced. Such an abuse of power is no more likely to arise in a county asylum than in a state hospital, and the chances of exposure are much greater in the former than in the latter. Our information regarding affairs in the wards of our hospitals must necessarily be limited, while there is much familiarity with the inner workings of our county poor-houses. Our experience has been that any abuses practiced in them soon meets the public ear or eye.

Under what regulations shall the counties be permitted to care for the insane? The following abstract of the Wisconsin law will give the best judgment of the Wisconsin Board of Charities and Reform on this subject:

"Whenever in the opinion of the Board of Charities and Reform there is insufficient provision for the insane in the state hospitals and county asylums, they may file with the secretary of state a list of those counties that possess accommodations for the proper care of the chronic insane, and thereafter each of said counties which shall care for its chronic insane under such rules as said Board may prescribe, on the properly verified certificate of said board to the secretary of state, receive the sum of one dollar and fifty cents per week for each person so cared for and supported as further provided.

"On the first day of October in each year, the superintendent of the poor or other officer having charge of the poor, certifies to the secretary of state the names of all persons cared for at public cost, the number of weeks supported, etc. If such certificate is approved by the State Board, the secretary of state includes the amount in the next state tax, and on the first day of February places the amount to the credit of said county."

The board is also given the power of transfer of patients from counties that possess insufficient accommodations for their own insane, and at the expense of the county to which they belong, to other counties. Whenever a county possesses accommodations for the care of a greater number of insane than belongs to it, it may receive such additional insane as the State Board of Charities and Reform may direct to be transferred to it, and for the care of such so transferred the county caring for

them shall receive the sum of three dollars per week, one-half the amount to be paid by the county to which they belong and one-half by the state.

In addition, the amount expended for clothing such persons shall be paid by the county to which they belong. No county is entitled to pay for the care of any person that has not been adjudged insane under the laws of the state, nor for the care and support of any insane person who is not lawfully and necessarily a public charge.

The rules adopted by the state board of charities and reform are as follows:

1. The buildings or parts of buildings set apart for the insane must be sufficiently warmed, lighted and ventilated. They must be clean and free from all offensive odors; and in addition to the sleeping apartments, they must have an associate day room or common sitting room for each sex.
2. There must be a large airing court or enclosed yard for each sex.
3. There must be a sufficient number of special attendants for each sex.
4. As far as possible regular occupation should be provided for the insane, at such kinds of work as they can be induced to engage in. We would specially suggest gardening and farm labor for the men and housework for the women.
5. Restraints of all kinds, such as shutting up in cells, tying the hands with hand-cuffs or "muffs," or shutting into covered beds, should be used only in extreme cases.
6. A daily record book must be kept showing the persons in restraint, the kind of restraint and the reasons for it.
7. The overseer of the poorhouse and his wife and all employes who have charge of the insane must be intelligent and humane persons of correct habits.
8. Some experienced physician must be appointed county physician, who shall thoroughly inspect the building and patients as often as may be necessary, and at least semi-monthly.
9. The overseer of the poor-house and the county physician shall report to the State Board of Charities and Reform in such form and at such times as the board shall prescribe.
19. The buildings or parts of buildings set apart for the insane shall at all times be open to the inspection of the State Board of Charities and Reform, or of any person or persons authorized by them.
11. The State Board of Charities and Reform may at any time add to, change or modify these rules as they may deem best for the interests of the patients.

A rigid observance of the above rules is required on the part of the board. Neglect or non-observance will endanger any aid from the state.

Under the system adopted the care and support of the insane is but little more and generally less than one-half what it costs in our state hospitals. It needs but a visit to the poor houses of the state and a familiarity with the workings of the system to confirm the most skeptical that it, at least, has the merit of humanity. Our experience is, that, as a rule, the insane are more quiet naturally than in our hospitals. No drugs or opiates are used, or, if ever, very seldom used — exercise and occupation obviating to a great extent this necessity.

The farms connected with the poor houses afford work for nearly all, and nearly all the inmates returned from the hospitals are found able to do some kind of farm or garden work.

On the score of greater economy and a wiser humanity, then, we favor county care of the chronic insane under efficient state supervision.

Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts: *Mr. President:* You set us a good example last night in being historical. I also will be historical, for this paper reminds me of the time when a few of us undertook to advocate so great a heresy as the separation of the chronic insane from those who were more recently insane. Dr. Butler, then of the Hartford Retreat, and myself were of the same opinion, and we presented the matter to the association of medical superintendents that met at Pittsburg in 1865; it was received respectfully, but was soon dropped like a hot potato. They appointed a committee to report on the question, and they listened to what Dr. Butler had to say. I was not a member of the association, but I had submitted my view in writing previously to some members, and for years after it had the same sort of treatment in that association. But now in a great measure the question is settled; it is no longer doubted that the chronic insane should be separated from the recent and curable cases. All agree that there should be some separation of that kind, and most people agree that there should be some small hospitals for recent cases, as well as these large chronic asylums, with a few curable cases.

Mr. Giles and the Wisconsin board have now introduced a new question, whether the chronic insane shall not themselves be separated; one portion of them remaining in the asylums while the other portion go the county poor houses. In Massachusetts it would be to the city or town poor houses, because we have no county poor houses there. I quite agree with Mr. Giles in his general view of this subject, and I have come to that opinion, not from any theorizing, but from long observation of our own poor houses, and the provision they contain for the chronic insane. They are quite different from those of Wisconsin, and there are also great differences among them. Some are larger and some smaller, some good, some bad, some

indifferent. One I visited a short time since had but a single inmate, while there are two almshouses in Boston which at present contain about 300 inmates. There are about 220 in the whole state. In some of them the chronic insane are well and comfortably treated, and their general condition, without looking towards recovery, is as good as in the average hospitals. So in every state some of this class might be as well taken care of in poor-houses as in the hospitals, provided public sentiment were right, and the public officers were careful in supervising these places. In certain districts in Massachusetts, and in some of our poor-houses, there is nothing in the nature of things, or in the common way in which the insane are treated, that forbids the adoption of the Wisconsin policy, nor is there necessarily in any state. What is needed is that the plan shall be tried by officers in sympathy with it, and who will do their duty.

The objection to the common treatment of the chronic insane in hospitals is this; they are aggregated in such numbers that they do not, and cannot, receive individual treatment; they are lost sight of in the crowd, even by their own relations and friends. I know of cases of the chronic insane which have not been visited by their friends for years. This Wisconsin policy restores the chronic insane in some degree to the care of their friends, and the people of their own locality. This is an important point, drawing the attention of the people towards them. In England they are discussing this question, not by local officials, as here, but by the government officials, the local government board. They have this question to face as we have here, and they see that their workhouses (equivalent to our poor houses) can be used for the chronic insane. They even propose to send the recent insane there. I have here the last *Journal of Mental Science*, in which two medical gentlemen, Drs. Boyd and Dye, recommend that the English workhouses be used for this purpose.

They say they are providing in England for the sick poor, in what we should call poor-house hospitals; that if there is to be any distinction made between the care of the insane and the

sick, it should be in favor of the sick, because sick men, women and children may recover, and that their services would be much more valuable than these of the insane, who seldom recover. Therefore, they say, let us secure the recovery of the sick pauper in preference to that of the insane. This is an argument against sending the insane poor to county and borough hospitals, which in England correspond to our state hospitals here. We have not got so far as to use this English argument against sending the insane to hospitals rather than to poor-houses — but you see the force of it.

A. G. Byers, Ohio: I have been greatly interested to learn of a state in which county infirmaries are superior to the state institutions for the care of the insane. In connection with this country can you speak of the pauper insane? In Ohio we recognize no such distinction — pauperism is always more or less suggestive of personal negligence or vicious conduct — insanity may and does occur among the poor and dependent, but it is all the more a misfortune. So in our state the defective and afflicted classes, without regard to their temporal circumstances are treated alike, the man worth a million and the one penniless and friendless have equal care — the one no more for being rich, the other no less for being poor — and I doubt if any state makes more liberal provision or affords better care for the insane than the state of Ohio.

Our county infirmaries (poor-houses) would, I doubt not, stand a comparison with such institutions in other states. But they are usually on large farms — removed somewhat from public observation, under the direction of their directors elected (one annually) who serve three years. These officers are not ordinarily selected so much for their personal fitness as for their political science or influence, the latter not applying so much to the man chosen as to the locality — the "back township" which he represents. The directors appoint a superintendent who is charged with the management of the farm as well as the care of the household; his wife is matron, but ordinarily receives no pay. She and her husband are "one flesh;" so the husband gets a small salary and the wife is "thrown in"

(laughter), Of course, with a large farm to manage and such a household of insane, epileptic, idiotic, decrepit age and helpless childhood to look after, some interest must suffer; and to my observation the farm outlying to the public gaze is well "tended" while the households are neglected. Ordinarily, this neglect comes upon the insane who may be refractory or filthy — these are strapped, or secured, or handcuffed, or hobbled, or locked in narrow, dark, filthy cells of what is called the "crazy house" or jail" and left to live if they may or die if they can, while the "boss" is busy with the farm.

In most of our state asylums the insane are more or less employed, and always out of doors if possible. I am glad to state further that in most of them all forms of mechanical restraint have been put away, and the results are every way encouraging.

During a recent visit to the Athens asylum in our state, I found 599 patients, and of these one female patient afflicted with acute mania was secluded. There were at the same date eleven patients (male and female), taking night medicine, or medicine to make them sleep. Not one taking any simply "quieting" medicine by day.

We are looking forward hopefully in Ohio to the day when our state will furnish hospital or asylum facilities for the care of all her insane, chronic as well as acute; and no citizen familiar with the subject would be willing to contemplate an inhumanity such as would follow the remanding of these classes to the care of our county infirmaries.

Dr. David Rogers, New York: I have long considered that county asylums, organized on the same principle as state institutions, and given the same care and oversight, would be one of the greatest reform movements that could be made for the benefit of the unfortunate insane. I would not cut loose entirely from state institutions, but I would have these county institutions with the same medical ability and conducted by as efficient attendants as are given state institutions, and I can assure you, for we have tested it somewhat in our own county, that we can produce equally as great an amount of cures, and with greater economy. This question of county asylums is an

important one, and should be touched cautiously and carefully. It is a profound medical question and calls for the greatest talent of the best medical minds we have. It is a question that charlatans should have nothing to do with; a question that no political influence should have anything to do with; but every county asylum should have a board whose hearts and feelings would be enlisted in favor of the unfortunate insane, and who should endeavor by kind treatment to produce cures among the patients, a greater and better thing to accomplish than tearing them away from their homes and firesides and putting them in state asylums. I am in favor of county asylums, but in no form attached to poor-houses. I would elevate the treatment, and when we come as a nation to that point, and study to elevate the treatment of the insane in our counties, and have thoroughly competent medical attendants, who will study carefully every point and know the history of each patient, and employ the best treatment, then we shall have arrived at a great reform in the care of the insane.

Fred. H. Wines, Illinois: I was not so happy as to hear Mr. Giles' paper read, but I suppose I know the substance of it, from conversations I have had with him in years past. I think I know Mr. Giles' mind on that subject. I may also say here that I have a profound respect for what Mr. Sanborn says. I never listen to him without interest and profit. When I hear him advocate, as strongly as he does, the care of the insane by towns and counties, and when I hear Mr. Giles' statements in regard to your experience in Wisconsin, I am a little, but not very much, shaken in my views, formed after some thirteen years experience in visiting institutions maintained, some of them by states, and more of them by counties, in which the insane are kept. I do not question in any degree the accuracy of the statements made here in regard to the poor-houses of Wisconsin. But I must say, with respect to the poorhouses of Illinois, that there are very few of them in which I should be willing to see an insane friend of mine placed for care and treatment. When we made our regular visitation of county poorhouses, two years ago, we asked certain questions, one of of which was: How many

of the insane who are in county poor-houses are in seclusion or under restraint? And to our great surprise, out of six hundred insane on the county farms. there were one hundred and twenty, or one in every five, who were found in seclusion, in constant, habitual seclusion. I don't think you can make the tour of the poor-houses of Illinois, at any time, without finding one in every five of the insane inmates shut up in a room. Would you find that to be the case in a state institution? Not at all. In many a state in the Union I have gone through some state hospital for the insane, and have not found a single patient in seclusion. The idea that there is more suffering, hardship, and wrong inflicted upon the insane in state than in county institutions is, in my judgment, a delusion. I don't make any remarks in regard to Wisconsin, for I don't know anything about it, but I speak of state institutions generally.

It is true that in county poor houses an insane patient not in seclusion may (or he may not) enjoy certain advantages which are not accorded to him in a state institution. The number of inmates is less; it is not so easy a matter to overlook one; and should one escape he would be more certainly and speedily missed; and so they are given more freedom on the grounds than is ordinarily accorded to them in state institutions. In that respect the county institution is, for certain persons, perhaps the best. Perhaps the inmates of county poor-houses are more constantly employed, it is natural that they should be, on farms than in state institutions. But when you have said that, I think you have said about all that can be said in favor of the county institutions. And when you come to examine and weigh all the arguments, *pro* and *con*, the balance is in favor of the state institutions.

Our friend Dr. Rogers has spoken of a county institution in a particular county (Queens county, New York), in which the population is so large, that his remarks do not apply to a county in which not more than five or six insane are liable to be kept at the poor house.

Take our average poor-houses, as they are, and how can they properly care for the insane? In the first place, there are not

enough insane inmates to make it an object to provide suitable accommodations for them, to say nothing of proper medical care and personal supervision. The insane department cannot, in the great majority of the counties in the United States, be separated from the poor-house, but on the contrary, the sane and insane paupers are all under a single roof, or at best, on the same premises, under a single keeper. Then consider how our counties are governed; especially in counties under township organization, governed by a board of supervisors, which is simply a petty legislature, made up for the most part of men of limited experience, with a narrow range of ideas. Is it likely that the good of the institution will be guarded and its interests looked after by a county board, which appoints the keeper for local political reasons, or because he is the lowest bidder? or that such an institution will be as well managed as where it is managed by trustees appointed by the governor of the state and confirmed by the state senate on account of their ability and fitness for the position? or that its inmates are likely to fare as well? I think not.

I went once to a county institution in Illinois, one of the largest in the state. That county was paying, annually, for pauper support, more than some other large and wealthy counties pay for all their county expenses. It was paying fifty or sixty thousand dollars a year on pauper account, most of which was for out-door relief. After inspecting the poor-house, I visited the insane department; first, the department for insane men and then that for insane women. The keeper in charge of the alms-house called himself a doctor; what authority he had, if any, for doing so, I do not know. He went with me to the apartment in which the women who are insane sleep. It was not yet quite dark, but it was dusk. He tried to open the door. We found it barricaded on the inside. He broke it open. I looked in and saw some twenty or thirty female patients, who were retiring for the night. I withdrew; but the doctor went in, to quell the disturbance and ascertain who was responsible for the barricading. When he came out, I asked him if these insane women slept together by themselves, without any attendant? "No,"

he said, "not any." I asked: Why not? He said that the county board would not allow him any. (Remember this was in a county which paid fifty or sixty thousand dollars a year for the support of paupers). He continued: "You saw my wife as you passed through; she is an invalid, and not able to do anything for the paupers. The supervisors will not allow me any assistant, and there are two or three old women who are so crazy they will not bathe themselves. I have to go in every week and bathe them with my own hands. The only help I can get is that given me by two or three old pauper women." That is one illustration of the kind of care sometimes taken of the insane by a county board. True, it is an exceptional case. But you can never make a county institution equal to a state institution. The county board is controlled by political motives. It is unwilling to care for insane paupers properly. The insane on our county farms are often put into the hands of ignorant, incompetent men, as alms-house keepers; men who are afraid of them, and they don't know what to do with them. What do they do? They control them by brute force. They intimidate them. I could tell you of insane paupers chained to benches and to the floors; penned up in pens without any doors, but only having holes in the wall through which to pass food and water; kept locked up in solitary rooms for sixteen years at a time, without going out or setting foot upon the ground. I have known of pistols being fired over their heads.

A Voice: In what age of the world did all that occur?

Mr. Wines: In the present age — the nineteenth century.

A Voice: And under the administration of a State Board of Charities?

Mr. Wines: Yes, sir; under our administration, and we are powerless to prevent it. Why, a woman once told me — she was the wife of the keeper — she pointed out an insane pauper to me and said: "That woman is dangerous. She took a little boy on the place one day, and hung him by the neck in the fork of an apple tree, so that the boy nearly died, but some one heard him choking and took him out. I am afraid of her. Why, I whipped that woman one time for half an hour, with a

horse whip before she would give up. She stood at the foot of the stairs and would not go up or away, and I had to make her submit to me." When I expressed surprise and disapproval, she said: "What can I do? My husband has to leave the farm and go to town and I am alone with these crazy people. We don't get enough for keeping the paupers to justify us in employing anybody. That woman is dangerous and I have to intimidate her and I don't know of any other way to do it." That is the kind of people that we put in charge of the insane on our county farms, sometimes — not in Wisconsin, but in Illinois and Ohio and in other states, except Wisconsin, where the insane are kept on county farms. I do not believe that it is a right, or wise, or humane system, as it is usually administered throughout the country. Mr. Sanborn, perhaps, does not agree with me. But his experience has been in Massachusetts, where they have town alms-houses. I don't know anything about town alms-houses, but I hope that nothing like what I have seen and described ever occurs in them.

L. P. Alden, Mich.: In Michigan, in the Wayne county poor house, there are sometimes 350 inmates kept. Recently there has been a change in the physicians. When the present physician took charge he found six patients who had been confined in cells and handcuffed so long that he was obliged to file the iron. He took these persons out of doors, worked them on the farm, and they are now working quietly. These patients had been there for years till the handcuffs had to be filed off. But he was a cultured, intelligent man and would not allow anything of the kind.

Dr. W. J. Scott, Ohio: It seems to me that there are two sides to this question, the favorable, and the unfavorable, and I stand between the two. It does seem to me that these state boards of charities have a work to do that they have not yet undertaken. We all know, who have read on this subject, that there is a large class of these people who can be controlled without much restraint, or punishment. No man who has been accustomed to visit insane asylums, whether he is an expert or not, but knows that in every asylum in this country there are many

insane that do not need that extensive supervision that we are giving them. It is so in Ohio, in Illinois, Wisconsin — everywhere.

Now, what are the state boards to do? They can recommend some measure to get rid of these people from these institutions, that is one way of doing it. We have a class in all the lunatic asylums of Ohio that have brought their lunacy on themselves; they are some of them gentlemen of leisure and education. By their own actions they have brought disease on themselves and they are sent to the lunatic asylum to be provided for by the state. Of this class are chronic inebriates; they do not leave after they have been there long enough to recover from their mania, a portion having expensive supervision to make them behave themselves. They ought to turn them out, and if necessary send them to the work-house where they would be reformed a hundred times quicker than they will in lunatic asylums. It only needs back-bone to make them do that. There is another large class who have been kept in asylums until the time for their retention has been passed, as the demented chronic insane; do they need such an expensive supervision as Ohio provides for them in her splendid institutions? Not a bit of it. We can do that with such modifications as can be properly made, it seems to me, and give them good care, and yet cut down our expenses per capita one-third.

Why not? Why when I have talked with gentlemen on this question, I have been told that the very moment you take these persons out of these institutions, some of them will get better and bring discredit on our institutions. I was told that by a gentleman who was a long time superintendent of the central asylum at Columbus. That was one of his objections.

From my study and observations on this subject, and of treatment of patients in hospitals, I believe that patients are often sent to lunatic asylums that have no right to go there. A man with *mania-a-potu* has no business there, because he will get over that in a very few weeks' time with proper treatment, and then let him take care of himself.

Dr. J. W. Walk, Pa.: I rise to ask a question. I was

brought up in the old orthodox creed that the state should take charge of its lunatics in its asylums, but the experience of Wisconsin and New York has somewhat shaken my faith. There is one thing I do not understand. Why is it that it costs so much more to keep a pauper who is a chronic insane person in a state than in a county asylum? The money comes out of the same people. Why is it that tweedledum is so much more expensive than tweedledee? It is a fact that it only costs $1.50 or $2.00 or $3.00 in a county where there are a few insane people. Now that fact is a contradiction of everything else. We know that by the aggregation of a large number together and the division of labor the expenses per capita are cut down — the average is less; that manufacturing can be done cheaper where a large number are employed and the work systematized than where one person works alone. People who build hotels, and everything else of that kind, understand the principle. There are no county houses conducted on that plan, where the meals are sold at a price below that of any other institution that provides for a much larger number could furnish them for, and it always seemed to me that a state asylum could take care of the insane just as cheaply or cheaper than a county asylum. It certainly is cheaper to feed five hundred people than it is to feed five just as well. There would be the cooking and the making of bread and a hundred other things in the one case as well as in the other, one in large quantities and the other in small. So it seems foolish to me to say that it can't be done cheaper for the larger number. The only explanation I can give is that the county does not keep them as well. How is it that a county asylum, say in the city of Philadelphia, a place of high prices, can keep them just as cheaply and as well as the state asylum in the western part of the state where things are cheaper? I don't believe it can be done.

Fred. H. Wines, Illinois: He asks why and has answered the question himself. They are not so well taken care of in the county asylums. Where they only expend half as much they cannot get but half as much. In Illinois it costs, in a state institution, about three dollars and a half a week for each patient cared for. On the county farms it does not cost more than

a dollar and a half or two dollars. In the state institution, one dollar a week for each is the cost of food, that is, for the raw material. One-fourth of the total cost is for salaries and wages, that is, eighty-five cents a week, all of which is saved on the county farm, where nothing is paid for labor, but the poor are let out to the lowest bidder. Eighty-five cents a week saved on that item. Then the county saves something on fuel. In a county poor-house there is perhaps an insane receptacle — a hall through the middle, rooms on each side, a slat door to each room, and a fire in the stove in the hall. The rooms are not warm; the patients shiver with the cold; sometimes their feet freeze off; but there is a saving of expense. On the county farm, when dinner time comes, the sick patient, who is nervous and dyspeptic and cannot eat, is given cabbage and bacon; a pauper hands it to him through a hole in the door or in the wall; he can eat it if he is hungry, or if he don't want it he can let it alone. This is a further saving. As to medical attention, perhaps he does not see a doctor from one year's end to another. The medical care of the paupers is let to the lowest bidder; the contract is taken by some young doctor at the county seat for forty-nine dollars and a half for the year, for which he agrees to visit the paupers at the farm, the prisoners in the jail, and all the poor in town, and to furnish medicines at his own expense. You may depend upon it, he don't waste much time riding to the poor-house, especially in the winter. That is a saving of expense again. Then there is the item of personal attendance. The county furnishes none. So I might go through the list. Oh, the county system is a great deal cheaper. But it would be cheaper still to take an axe and knock all the insane paupers in the head. Then they would not cost anything.

Dr. David Rogers, New York: I believe that my friend from Illinois has drawn an exaggerated picture. If his representation applies to Illinois only, then this conference can do no greater work then to send two or three missionaries into Illinois.

Prof. Wright, Wisconsin: I have been interested in seeing my friends, the Secretaries of the Ohio and Illinois State Boards,

setting up a man of straw and knocking it down, by depicting a few of the very worst cases and implying from these specimens that all poor-houses are of the same kind. But these are not the sort of poor-houses for the insane Mr. Giles has been advocating. I do not believe that the poor-houses of Ohio and Illinois have been fairly represented, for I have read their state reports. But in regard to a certain class, as they have existed in the past, and no doubt exist in some localities to-day, no man living could fairly depict them, or be able to portray their miseries.

I speak for Wisconsin, and I can speak with better grace because the work was done before my time. I have visited every poor house in Wisconsin several times, and know their present condition from personal observation. A great work has been done; the state board has changed the character of the poor houses from what they were, so that now they are quite different places; they are not palaces, and they are not expected to be, as that would not be in accordance with the purposes for which they are designed. But they are, in the first place, managed by intelligent and careful persons, who are usually kept there as long as they will stay for the comparatively inadequate salaries they receive; but their salaries have been raised in many cases to hold them. The best class of these managers of these poor houses are intelligent farmers, and their wives are intelligent and fearless women. I admit that this does not describe every poor house in the state, but nearly all of the larger, and some of the smaller ones also. The poor house care of the insane before our recent legislation for county insane asylums was comparatively good, though by no means in all respects equal to the care given by the state, but even then was well adapted for the harmless chronic insane.

It has been improved still further in counties working under the new law; so that now for all that class of the chronic insane who are not violent or filthy, it is as good as the care afforded in the state institutions.

There has been a great improvement in regard to the construction of buildings. I would call attention to this fact, that

all, with one exception I think, of the buildings for the insane going up this summer, under the new law, are separate buildings from the poor houses. They are on the poor farms, but entirely separate buildings, on the other side of the road, or at some distance off, so as to make them distinct institutions. In one case there is no poor house whatever, the county building for the insane for Sheboygan county, which has no poor house, and they don't intend to have one. There is one county in this state, Fond du Lac county, which had a very good building for the insane before this law was passed, much better than we could reasonably expect under the circumstances. The building was accepted by our board, but not the management, and they were notified that until there was an entire change made they would not get a cent of the state appropriation. There is a difference in counties in regard to the care of the insane, and I think that this applies to state institutions as well, and it is not fair to contrast the best state institutions with the worst county institutions.

You could hardly expect under the circumstances that county boards would make any permanent provision for the care of the insane. When an institution has been erected and consent is sought that the insane should be kept in the poor house, and it is thought for any cause that they should not be there, they are brought back into the state institutions. They overflow these; and the most hopeless cases are selected and sent back to the counties again, the violent, and the filthy, whom the state institutions are glad to get rid of. It is very discouraging indeed to the counties. It could not be expected that they would put up permanent buildings. But now, just so soon as a permanent provision is offered it is gladly accepted, and I can testify to having visited fourteen or fifteen county boards, and presented matters before them and talked with them in private as well as in public, and having found that there is a general feeling in the right direction on the part of the county boards; they intend to do, and mean to do, the best thing possible; they are willing to spend lavishly, and in some cases tend toward extravagance.

FRED. A. WINES, Illinois: I would like to ask a lady to speak who is connected with an institution in this state, and has given

more attention to this subject than perhaps any other person in the United States. I refer to Mrs. Lynde, of Milwaukee.

MRS. W. P. LYNDE, Milwaukee: *Mr. President:* As the President and Mr. Giles know, I have had some experience. No language that can be written can describe properly the horrors I have seen in the county poor houses of Wisconsin, in the early days and long before the organization of the state board of charities. It was in the course of the endeavor made to remedy these things that I was induced by the governor to take a place on the board at its organization. Nothing can adequately portray the horrors we have seen. We have seen men kept like wild animals in cages. The first time I visited the poorhouse in my own county, Milwaukee county, we found in a cage outside in the hall a man naked as he came into the world, chained to the wall, and on his knees in the straw placed in his cage covered with filth, and himself covered with his own filth like a beast, and in the next room was a woman confined and chained to the wall, in a horrible condition and painted with her own excrement. I have seen not far from this capital a man lying on his bed with limbs so cramped, and he had lain there so many years that the power to use his limbs had been destroyed and he could not straighten them. Some men went from here to make an examination. They thought they saw a chicken coop in the yard, and went to examine it, when out sprang from it a man as naked as when he was born. Again, when we were making our investigations, as we walked over the floor, it yielded as I put my foot on it; we made inquiry, and they said the water often comes through here, and we often have to pump the water out before we can get breakfast. Inclosed under the stairway was a sort of a cell. We inquired its use, and the attendant said: Here is where the insane man stays during the winter. There was just space enough to stand up. On the bed lay a woman cursing in the most terribly blasphemous manner I ever heard. Such was the condition of things as they used to exist. The state board of charities has greatly reformed that. I think the state board has made immense changes in the condition of the insane in poorhouses.

On the other hand our state institutions are made too much on the order of palaces. There is money enough spent on them for capitals and monuments. Many of them are merely architectural monuments; and then comes in the extra cost of carrying on state institutions. It is easy for boards to accept of plans and contractors' bids and not to properly supervise the erection of the buildings, and then the chronic insane are taken from these places. There are many of these persons whose condition is simply the result of their own vices and folly and degradation. It is hardly right that an honest man who can scarcely support his own family shall be taxed to put an insane person in a palace, while he is compelled to live in poverty.

It seems to me that this conference should find some middle ground between the wretched condition described as formerly existing and the palaces and the absurd conditions connected with the insane asylums. And how the insane should be cared for at public expense I don't understand. It is deplorable — but a man may be worth millions and still be thrown upon the public as a public charge; but why should he ask for public support any more than if he had a cancer? Let us have asylums so that if persons want this care they can pay for it; but don't let us tax ourselves for them. But the poor sick pauper has no such place. The sick sane mother dies because she can't send for a physician. All over the state poor women are dying every little while because they have not money to send for a physician, but the neighbor whose bad habits put him in a palace as insane is supported at public expense and the poor man who owns five or ten acres is taxed to support him there.

And it should be so arranged that each of the patients should come under the care of a physician. And the nearer we bring these institutions to the people the more we can bring the people to take an interest in them, and the more surely they will be cared for. But now we leave it to an official, or to the doctor, or to somebody else, whom the board of supervisors may expect to do them some little favor. But can't you make smaller institutions, nearer the people? Let us work and know how to do, but don't put them back into the poor-house.

And let us hope that the state boards will have the wisdom to ask for every good thing, and that our institutions shall have such supervision as will prevent such horrors as we have described and others that we have seen.

Dr. C. S. Hoyt, New York: I would prefer that this subject be laid on the table until another time.

President Elmore: I am going to say a few words myself. Mrs. Lynde has told the truth about the condition of the poor houses of this state; but that was several years ago, and that condition does not represent the condition of our poor houses to-day. I know all about it, for I have been there; I have visited all the poor houses of the state; I have turned up the clothes in nearly every bed in them and searched for bed bugs and such things, and have been in every kitchen and examined nearly every flour barrel and pork barrel, and looked them all through. To-day, a majority of the poor houses of the state are more cleanly than the houses of a majority of the farmers in this state. At a large number of the poor houses of this state I can sit down at the table and eat and not have my stomach turned at all. I have recently visited some of them and know what I am saying, and I can't let the impression go which Mrs. Lynde may have made on this audience to night that she speaks the present condition of our poor houses, when it represents them as they were years ago. Her statements about them as they were then are not so exaggerated, as you will see if you read the reports of our board. We have said all that. We said we had seen millions of bed bugs in them, and at one time that was literally true. We did not let the evils escape. Mrs. Lynde don't tell it half as bad as it was, or as it could be told, and then not tell all the truth.

Dr. Philip G. Gillett, Illinois: The tenor of the remarks made seem to imply that the state board of Illinois has been careless. I am not a member of the board and I know they have not been careless.

Wm. H. Neff, Ohio: The statement made by our secretary shows that these places are not proper p : ces for children or the insane. I am satisfied that a great harm and injury is done

in every way by keeping the insane in these infirmaries, and we should not cease our efforts until the children and the insane are out of these infirmaries. They should be placed in a separate building provided for them, a separate asylum. We don't propose to say before we place an insane person in that asylum that he is to receive no medical attention, or no attention from the superintendent, or where there is some indication of returning reason that no assistance is to be given to him at all. We propose on the grounds of the state institution to erect a supplementary building at a moderate expense, where all the insane of Ohio can be provided for, where they can have the care of medical directors and physicians, and whenever there are indications of returning health they can receive the full benefits of the hospital. We know that the state will sustain us in placing them in suplementary buildings. In answer to a question, I will say that the state board of charities of Ohio has elevated the tone and character of the state institutions.

FIFTH SESSION.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, August 9, 1882.

PRAYER BY REV. DR. DANA, Minnesota:

Our Father in heaven, we have met together to continue the discussion of these great themes which interest us as thy people, and to promote, as far as may be, the cause of humanity and the well-being of man. Preside over our deliberations this day; suggest what things we shall say to each other, and give to us such large breadth of understanding of thy plans concerning us that we may be endowed with thy divine compassion and go forth with kind hearts to do what in our power lies for the amelioration of the ills of mankind and for the building up of thy cause in the world. We thank thee for efforts that are being made to make better the condition of humanity, and for the spirit to go about and endeavor to save the lost, to lift up the fallen, to cheer the faint, to minister to the weak, and to advance the common welfare. Give to all laborers such wisdom as cometh from above, give to our officers wisdom, and direct us all through the day, and may we all be filled with love to Thee, and to all around us. Bless the states from which we come; bless the families of all those gathered here; preside over all our interests here; fill all our hearts with thy love and thy peace, and purity, and may our work prosper under thy divine blessing; all which we ask in the name of Him who has taught us to pray:

(The conference united in the Lord's prayer.)

The committee on preventive work among children, having the floor for the morning session, presented an order of business which was carried out by the conference, as follows:

1. Report of the committee, read in the absence of the chairman, Hon. W. P. Letchworth, of New York, by Dr. Chas. S. Hoyt, of New York.

2. A paper by Mr. J. W. Skinner, of the New York Children's Aid Society, entitled "How May We Rescue Street Children?" read in his absence by Bishop G. D. Gillespie, of Michigan.

3. A paper by Mr. Elbridge T. Gerry, President of the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, entitled "The Relation of Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children to Child-Saving Work," read in his absence by Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio.

4. A paper by Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, of California, entitled "The Kindergarten as a Child-Saving Work," read in her absence by Mrs. Gov. Beveridge, of Illinois.

5. A discussion upon the papers read.

The papers and discussions were as follows:

PREVENTIVE WORK AMONG CHILDREN.

The Committee on "Preventive Work Among Children," having considered the subject assigned them by the last Conference, submit this report:

In view of the growing importance of the Kindergarten as a means of elementary education, its adaptability to orphanages and similar institutions, and the good results likely to be attained thereby, as affecting mental attainment and moral character, it was thought desirable to ask Mrs. Cooper, of California, to furnish an expression of her views on "The Kindergarten as a Child-saving Work." In kind response she has prepared out of her extended experience an interesting paper on this subject.

While, through philanthropic action of the people, numerous laws have from time to time been passed for the protection of children; yet owing to the lack of legalized machinery for enforcing these laws, they have proved ineffectual. Within recent years this defect has been remedied in New York and some other states by legislative enactment authorizing the formation of societies specially charged with the enforcement of the law. These organizations have proved so beneficial as affecting the classes coming under the consideration of this committee, that it has been thought well to suggest the importance of a general extension of such work throughout all the states. In a paper entitled "The Relation of Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children to Child-saving Work," furnished in compliance with the committee's request, Mr. Gerry, President of the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, presents a forcible argument in favor of the establishment of such societies.

The importance of work directed to rescuing homeless children of the street, so especially abounding in our large cities,

has induced the committee to invite the attention of the Conference to this pressing subject. The extended labors carried on in this direction for so many years by the New York Children's Aid Society, at an outlay of several millions of dollars, make it seem desirable that an opportunity should be offered on this occasion for an exposition of the important work so long and prominently identified with the name of the Rev. Charles L. Brace. This is presented in a suggestive paper prepared by Mr. J. W. Skinner, on behalf of the New York Society, and entitled "How Shall We Rescue the Children of the Street?"

In the opinion of the committee, if time is afforded after reading and discussing the foregoing papers, it might be profitably occupied by taking up the subject of "Industrial and Reform Schools for Boys and Girls."

Respectfully submitted, on behalf of the Committee,

WM. P. LETCHWORTH, *Chairman.*

HOW MAY WE RESCUE STREET CHILDREN?

BY J. W. SKINNER.

When this subject was chosen for consideration the committee expected that Rev. C. L. Brace would prepare a paper on the subject, though under no engagement to do so. His departure for Europe left it unattended to. As the question "how street children could be rescued" was on the programme the chairman of the commitee requested the writer to prepare a short paper, so that the modes of improving the condition of dependent children might be brought before the conference for discussion in the regular way at the appointed time.

I have accordingly in the short time and with the limited means at my disposal, endeavored to give an account of some of the means that have been used and a summary of results as far as the documents within my reach enable me to do.

In the term "street children" I include all those brought up and encouraged to beg, and all who by the neglect or crime of their parents, are exposed to a career of vice and liable under the laws against truancy and vagrancy.

Where street children have parents, the first thing in order is to establish parental control. If the parent has erred by too strict or too lenient government or in not providing a suitable home, they should be visited and an attempt made to remove the difficulties in the way of a return of the child.

If it should turn out on investigation that his own home, either from the character of the parent, or from the absence of all the essential qualities of a good home, is no better than a life in the street, then the law should interfere in behalf of the public, as well as for the interest of the child, and see that he is provided with a home where he may be properly brought up.

Children without known parents rightly become children of the state. Where they have friends or relatives interested in their welfare, and father or mother is dead, they are proper subjects for the care and guardianship of orphan and half-orphan asylums, and may find in them at least a temporary home.

If left on the street without care or supervision, eking out a miserable existence by begging or stealing without known means of support, then the question is presented, what shall we do with them?

Send them to the poor-house, say those who do not care what becomes of them so that they are got out of the way.

In many states, not reached by the ideas prevailing in conferences of charities or bodies and associations disseminating knowledge of political economy and social science, the practice yet prevails of sending neglected children with or without their parents to remain under the contaminating influences of the county poor-house. But happily this practice is getting to be 'more honored in the breach than in the observance.'

In every educational association or conference concerning prisons and charities the interests of neglected children have demanded and received careful consideration. They are found to be closely connected with the increase or diminution of crime and pauperism and the general welfare of the community.

J. P. Wickersham, in his paper on education and crime, shows conclusively the connection of crime with ignorance. His testimony is:

1. That about one-sixth of all the crime in the country is committed by persons wholly illiterate.

2. That about one-third of it is committed by persons practically illiterate.

3. That the proportion of criminals among the illiterate is about ten times as great as among those who have been instructed in the elements of common school education.

These reports are borne out by statistics from all prisons and reformatories.

S. H. White says a person not able to read or write is six times as apt to commit crime as one who can read and write.

Dr. E. C. Wines corroborates these views, setting down the proportion of illiterate convicts as about one-third of the entire mass.

Mr. Wickersham expresses his conviction "that if the population now filling our penitentiaries, prisons and reformatories had been properly cared for and educated when young, at least three-fourths of them would have been saved to society and themselves."

That people living on the street must be ignorant 'goes without saying.'

In every great city there are societies and institutions organized to meet their wants.

The Children's Aid Society of New York among others, has,

for many years, sustained schools adapted to the education of street children. Those who were too poor, or too ragged, dirty, irregular in attendance, or too much in want of food or clothing to attend the public schools, are sought out by missionaries and teachers; their wants are supplied to a limited extent and they are taught the elementary branches.

Ragged schools, mission and charity schools engaged in similar work throughout the country are reclaiming many thousands of the children from the streets, and through mental, moral and religious teaching saving multitudes from following in the footsteps of their parents.

The late Jared Macy, of New York, started a school on a wood pile in front of a blacksmith shop on Hammersly street. Imitating John Pound, who followed the vagrant boys with a cold potato, Mr. Macy won the attention of the vagrant boy with bread and molasses. This was the beginning of the half-time industrial schools of the Children's Aid Society, which now have an average attendance of near 4,000 pupils daily.

All charitable educational societies would be greatly aided in their good work by a stricter enforcement of the laws of compulsory education. The laws are strong enough, but they are carried but feebly into execution. In times past, in other countries, they have effected great changes. In our own country they will be equally efficacious when public opinion is educated and appreciates their importance. But at present the poor, whom they are intended to benefit, and the officers whose duty it is to administer the laws, shrink from their execution. The disposition seems to be to wait till the child has developed vicious tendencies and then commit him to a reform or an industrial school.

The reformatory institution is one of the necessary agencies in dealing with neglected children. By restraint, discipline and instruction, and teaching mechanical trades, they are able to rescue about 60 per cent. of those committed to their care. Only a small number are found to be so vicious and thoroughly depraved as not to be benefited by their experience.

In every great center of population there are still great numbers of children not being educated, by reason of poverty or other hindrances. It is said there are 60,000 in the state of New York alone not attending school, and that there is on an average a proportionate number of uneducated children in every other state, in some more, in others less.

This is the fact, though our public schools have been increasing in efficiency and numbers and attendance; though reformatory and industrial schools are crowded; though children's aid societies and charitable associations, and societies for the prevention of cruelty to children have been actively at work. Hon. William P. Letchworth, in 1870, reported that he estimated there were over 20,000 children in the different public

institutions in New York, not including those in industrial schools, lodging houses, etc. The percentage of these children to the population may be taken as nearly the same in the northern states. Yet the number of children in the streets is greater than those in the institutions. The best results appear to be obtained when the institution is organized on the congregate plan, so as to imitate as near as the circumstances allow the training children get in a well regulated family. Mrs. Julia C. R. Dorr, of Rutland, Vermont, presented the right view of the reform school: "Its mission is to save, not to punish; to help and build up, not to cast down and disgrace; its discipline, so far as it possibly can be, the discipline of the family; bolts and bars, high fences and locked gates, are not in its plan; it seeks to rule by love rather than by the terrors of the law."

This can be accomplished more nearly on the congregate or family plan than on any other.

In Michigan this plan has been adopted and put in execution several years. Hon. C. D. Randall, author of the law establishing the school at Coldwater, Mich., says:

"It requires that a good family is the best place for a child. So this institution is only a temporary home, it being an agency to obtain, as soon as may be, a good family home for a child where he or she is placed under a contract securing treatment as a member of the family, and an elementary education.

The prominent features of the system are:

1. The radical separation of innocent from criminal children.
2. Education in a home by the state, under educational and moral influences. The home to be temporary.
3. Restoration to family homes as soon as children are fitted for them.

It is made the special duty of the board of control to secure homes for the children. The school is thus a half-way house from dependence to a family home."

The report states that there are eight cottages containing 30 children and one containing 60 children. Each cottage is in charge of a lady who cares for the children like a mother. When the children are placed out the board of control maintains its guardianship during minority.

The placing out of street children has been practiced by the Children's Aid Society of New York for many years.

In the last 25 years over 50,000 have been taken from New York City and placed in homes in the western states. A great many of those taken out have grown up to be useful men and women, who, if left to the influences at work in great cities, would have had but little chance of attaining to a good and reputable life.

The society has not attempted to educate or train the children before placing them in homes, as its managers believe that they are best trained from the start in the family. It was found that

there is an endless demand for children in the rural districts of the west. The transfer from the city to the country life, the novelty of its labors and pleasures, the prospect of a new life and the establishing of new relationships, the charm of once more having a home, all tend to foster good resolutions and facilitate reformation.

Before placing them out, a local committee ascertains the character and circumstances of those wanting children, and afterwards act as guardians, standing in the attitude of a next friend. Where changes are desirable they are effected through the general agent, who looks after all the children who are sent out.

In addition to the measures for saving children now in successful operation, great advantage would be gained by systematic registration of all children. Through the co-operation of the various associations with police truant officers, some oversight could be maintained over the street children, and many more could be reclaimed from a vagabond life than can be when they are without supervision, and only noticed when by some accident or incident the attention of the authorities is called to them.

I make this suggestion with some distrust, as I cannot find any registration of this sort has been attempted, and I can perceive the difficulties it would have to encounter. Yet I think these would grow less every year, and it may be the time would come when nearly every street boy and girl could be known to some friend of humanity and at once be put in the way of a better life.

The effect of the measures for relief and rescue of street children has been to diminish crimes committed by boys and girls. In New York city, while the population increased from 814,000 in 1860 to 1,079,000 in 1879, the commitments of juveniles was less. In 1859, 944 girls were committed for petit larceny. In 1879, only 380. There was a large falling off in the commitments of boys under 15 years of age. No doubt the same result has been observed in other cities.

The supply of youthful thieves and burglars, vagrants and rogues has not kept pace with the increase of the population or with the increase of crime among adults.

There is need, also, of a temporary industrial home, conducted on the Michigan plan, in the vicinity of each large city, that could receive boys and girls committed by a magistrate, and have for its main object the placing them out on the plan of Mrs. Hill, or finding homes for them wherever they find proper persons willing to take them. Incidentally they could be trained and taught in the temporary home, and if any were found unfit through incorrigibly vicious habits and perverted natures, they could be sent to institutions of a penal character.

J. W. SKINNER,

NEW YORK, Aug. 1, 1882. *For C. L. Brace, of Com. on Street Children.*

THE RELATION OF SOCIETIES FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO CHILDREN TO CHILD-SAVING WORK.

By Elbridge T. Gerry, President of the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.

One of the fundamental principles of the government of this country is the peculiar composition of its sovereign power. Every individual of our great republic is a component part of that power. He forms an integral part of the sovereign people. The will of the people is proverbially the strength of the nation; and whether subdivided into the community of states, or considered in the light of a political mosaic as a concentrated and harmonious whole, the same principle is everywhere prominently conspicuous.

In each individual state the sovereign power is exercised with a view to the preservation, physical and moral, of the component parts of that power. It is the people who prosecute offenders. It is the people who exercise the right of eminent domain. It is the people who furnish public schools and compel education therein. It is the people whose right over the persons and the lives of themselves is paramount to every earthly tie or other consideration. And the reason is this: It is the interest of the republic that the people should not be disintegrated or impaired by any diminution of the intellectual, moral or physical strength of its members. Hence the people insist that the children who are to become the future component parts of the sovereignty, should be so cared for and reared that the males when mature shall be competent to bear arms for the protection of the republic; that the women shall be physically capable of bearing children of robust and vigorous physique; and that the young of both sexes shall be so educated and trained that the intellectual, the scientific and the moral status of the sovereign people shall not only remain unimpaired by lapse of time, but shall increase in strength proportionally with the growth of the body politic. To this end the people enact laws for the protection of children, and for their preservation from physical, moral and intellectual injury. The people recognize no right on the part of a parent to deprive a child of life, because the exercise of such a right, (although it existed under the old Roman law in certain cases), would deprive the body politic of its members. And by a like parity of reasoning, the people punish those who by act, encouragement or interference, attempt to impair the future prosperity of the body politic by injury, direct or indirect, to its growing members.

A careful review of the legislation of our country establishes the fact that such has always been the inherent principle of our

republic from the time of its inception. True, under certain restrictions, the care of children while in a state of infancy is practically left to their natural parents; because the ties of natural affection are supposed to ensure the greatest possible care of the objects of that affection. But as the republic has grown and prospered, and as parental ties have become somewhat weakened by what is sometimes called the spirit of independence of the American people, that people, for the preservation of their own future welfare, have by repeated acts of legislation interfered and restrained even parents in the exercise of what was deemed an authority conferred by the Almighty Himself.

A very striking illustration of this legislation, which of late years has moulded and crystallized into a compact and harmonious form, is exhibited by the recent laws forbidding the utilization of children at an early age for the pecuniary benefit of their parents, or of those who may have acquired, temporarily their possession or control. Thus, acrobatic performances, by which children are compelled to risk life and limb for the gratification of the morbid taste of the vulgar, but with lucrative gains to their custodians, are no longer permitted. The use of children as juvenile opera singers, by which night after night, at a tender age, half clad, they are exposed to the heated air of a theater, and then subjected to chilling draughts on the stage and the frosts and wet of the outer air, with the risk of prematurely destroying their vocal powers, and with the certainty of engendering the seeds of fatal disease, is prohibited by severe penalties. And lastly, to pass over numerous other specific acts prohibited, the infliction of cruel and unnecessary physical pain upon children — frequently the simple result of unbridled passion of the adult, under the pretence of justifiable chastisement — has been placed within proper restrictions by deliberate and carefully considered legislation. All this marks, decidedly and firmly, the progress of the republic; because the acts forbidden and the injuries committed on helpless children are not only injurious to the victim, but still more so to the perpetrator of the offense. Only the low and brutal resort to indiscriminate corporal punishment. Only the uneducated and the revengeful gratify their passions upon defenseless bodies of helpless little children. Only those who are degraded far below the level of the brute creation (for brutes have no vices), by a shameless submission to degrading passions, compel such little children by their pitiful condition to extract alms from the compassionate for their support, or for the procurement of the means of vicious indulgence. And when it is considered that man himself is but a reflection of the image of his maker, and that the purity of the little child is the most beautiful type of the purity of God himself, no additional argument is deemed necessary to establish conclusively, either the wis-

dom of such laws, or their obvious emanation from the principle which regards the moral law as superior in every sense to human legislation, which at best can be but its feeble imitation.

Under our system of government, the enforcement of the laws is usually left to public officials, either elected or appointed by the sovereign people for that purpose. But there are certain branches of the law which seem peculiarly to require the creation of corporations for their enforcement, in order to protect those who are unable to protect themselves; and especially in dealing with offenders who are wealthy, influential and powerful, and who might and do often exert influences which are powerless with a corporation. And this is particularly the reason for the creation of societies for the prevention of cruelty to children. Most of them are based upon the principle that a cohesion of effort insures success; or, to use the aphorism of the wise king of old, that a three-fold cord is not quickly broken. Throughout this great continent there is a net-work of these societies to-day in active operation. They are composed of humane persons of social position, unquestioned integrity and undoubted zeal. They interfere only when the law authorizes their interference for the benefit of the child; and they assert alike in their teaching and in their practice, the existence of the axiom that at the present day in this country, children have *some* rights, which even parents are bound to respect. Their duty is to present the facts which bring the case within the law before the appropriate tribunal; and then to leave the disposition of the case to the officers of the law, who are bound by their oaths and their official position to enforce that law, irrespective of persons. No matter how exalted the offender, the society has the right to confront him with its proofs; no matter how degraded the object of its mercy, the society is bound by its corporate duty to stretch out its hand and rescue from starvation, misery, cruelty and perhaps death, the helpless little child who ought to have a protector, but for some reason, not its fault, has been deprived of that advantage. On the other hand, where the parent properly discharges the parental functions, the society, so far from interfering, frequently and with success aids that parent in the reclamation of the erring, the wilful, and the disobedient child. It is only when the parent exceeds the proper exercise of the parental functions, or omits or refuses to perform those functions, that the society protects the child against the parent. Time will not allow of an elaborate presentation here of the work transacted during the past year by the 37 societies which exist in the United States. In the city of New York alone, 604 complaints were received, 569 convictions secured and 1,161 children rescued. In Pennsylvania, 900 complaints were received and 2,212 children rescued. In Massachusetts, 712 complaints

were received and 1,350 children rescued. In Wisconsin, 399 complaints were received and 164 children rescued. In California, 409 complaints were received, 681 cases examined and 81 convictions secured. Besides these 37 societies, there is one in Canada, one in Nova Scotia, one in England, ten in France, one in Spain, two in Italy, one in South America and one in the West Indies. These are constantly in communication with our own societies and forcibly illustrate the effect of the progress of American civilization upon the rest of the enlightened world.

Bearing these views in mind continually, can the utility of these societies in child-saving work be questioned for a moment? Perusing the records of cruelty in the past, does any one doubt the vast benefit which the existence of these corporations has been to the body politic, in aiding in the preservation of its integrity and purity? So long as vice and crime and evil passions exist in the community, their utility must also exist. So long as they discharge their functions with zeal, impartiality and an honest purpose, the community must and will recognize their necessity and uphold them. The work is not ostentatious. Its details are only to be gathered imperfectly from their records. But their mission is a great and noble one. The thousands of humane men and women who uphold the work attest this truth. They are not the subject of sectarian bias, or of political renown; but their labor is one which commends itself to the charitable of every age and religion. They protect the helpless, they bring back the outcast, they seek to save children in danger of being irretrievably lost. For physical cruelty is the parent of vice. Want and neglect are the incentives to crime. And crime not only destroys its perpetrator, but eats like a corroding ulcer into the nation which countenances its existence.

THE KINDERGARTEN AS A CHILD-SAVING WORK.

BY MRS. SARAH B. COOPER.

Somebody has said, if you would thoroughly reform a man, you must begin with his grandfather. In other words, all true education must be organic, and so thorough-bred as to become hereditary.

The subject assigned me by the committee, it seems to me, covers this very ground — namely, "The Kindergarten as a Child-Saving Work." I should esteem it a very great privilege to be present with you, and listen to the discussion of themes in which I feel a profound interest, and on which the future well-being of this great commonwealth so largely depends. How to administer charity and correction, wisely and

well, so that national strength and prosperity shall be conserved and not weakened by them, is a matter that challenges the best thought of our best citizenship. How to *prevent* crime is the leading question.

"What do you consider the best remedy for yellow fever" asked one of the commissioners appointed to investigate and report in regard to that dreadful plague, of a leading Southern physician.

"The only sure remedy is to prevent it altogether," was the terse response. There was good sense and wisdom in the reply.

What is to be done with "hoodlumism" and juvenile crime in our midst? asks prim old Public Opinion, as she folds her listless hands and heaves a regretful sigh. The curt response of the quick-witted Southern physician is most apposite: "The only sure remedy is to prevent it altogether.

Exactly so! But how is it to be prevented? That is the leading question. To start from the very foundation of things, we are compelled to admit, that a large proportion of the unfortunate children that go to make up the great army of criminals, are not born right. They come into the world freighted down with evil propensities and vicious tendencies. They start out handicapped in the race of life. But we must take these little waifs just as they are, and seek to make good citizens out of them. By what process of education and development are they to be made valuable members of society?

The doctrine that the hereditary defectiveness of the mass must be corrected by education and hereditary culture, is the true doctrine. Any system of education that does not contemplate these results does not deserve the name of education. What the world most needs to-day is character — genuine character. In order to do this we must get hold of the little waifs that grow up to form the criminal element just as early in life as possible. We must hunt up the children of poverty, of crime and of brutality just as soon as they can be reached — the children that flock in the tenement houses, on the narrow, dirty streets; the children who have no one to call them by dear names; children that are buffeted hither and thither, the "flotsam and jetsam on the wild, mad sea of life." This is the element out of which criminals are made. The simple, salient fact is, we do not get hold of these little children *soon enough.* An unfortunate childhood is the sure prophesy of an unfortunate life. "Important lessons of virtue and well-doing in earliest childhood," says Plato. "Give me the child," says Lord Bacon, "and the state shall have the man." "Let the very playthings of your children have a bearing upon the life and work of the coming man," says Aristotle. "It is early training that makes the master," says the great German poet. "He that receiveth a little child in my name receiveth me," said the Lover of little

children. Let us work with the children, the little children! Such work always pays handsome dividends to the family, to the community, to the state, and to the world! The pliable period of early childhood is the time most favorable to the eradication of vicious tendencies, and to the development of the latent possibilities for good. The foundations for national prosperity and perpetuity are to be laid deep down in our infant schools. And the infant school to do its best work and to be successful, must be organized and carried forward on the Kindergarten plan. The Kindergarten has rightly been termed the "Paradise of childhood." It is, indeed, the gate through which many a little outcast has re-entered Eden.

The whole design of the Kindergarten system is to rear virtuous, self-governing, law-abiding citizens. The Kindergarten system, if faithfully followed, would prevent criminals. And what estimate shall be placed upon an instrumentality which saves the child from becoming a criminal, and thus not only saves the state from the care and expense incident to such reform, but also secures to the state all that which the life of a good citizen brings into it?

Said a wealthy tax-payer to me recently, as he paid me a generous subscription: "I give you this aid most gladly. I consider it an investment for my children. I would rather give money to educate these little ones now, than to have my children taxed ten times as much by and by, to sustain prisons and penitentiaries." This was the practical view of a practical business man — a man of wise forethought and of generous, genial impulses.

The prevention of crime is the duty of society. But society has no right to punish crime at one end if it does nothing to prevent it at the other end. Society's chief concern should be to remove the causes from which crime springs. It is as much the duty to prevent crime as it is to punish crime. As has been truly said, society too often prepares the crime which the criminal commits. Parentage and society are very clumsy in their management of little children.

Nothing but virtue and intelligence can save a republic from ending in despotism, anarchy and corruption. There must be virtue and genuine character, and since virtue is secured by early training and habit, the children of our commonwealth must be trained in ways of honesty, industry and self-control. It matters not who they are and where they are, the state cannot afford to let them grow up in ignorance and crime. We have a vast number of humane institutions for the reclamation and recovery of the wayward and the erring. We have reformatory institutions, prisons, jails and houses of correction, and I bless God for every one of these agencies. But after all, these are but repair shops. Their work is secondary, not primal. It is trying to straighten the crooked tree. It is seeking to strengthen

faulty foundations. How much better it is to build new structures than to repair old ones! How much more satisfactory to make new wagons than to be forever patching up the shambling, rambling old vehicles. It is far better to begin at the beginning. This is the work of the Kindergarten.

The best physicians are not those who follow disease alone, but those who, as far as possible, go ahead and prevent it. They seek to teach the community the laws of health — how not to get sick. We too often start out on the principle that actuated the medical tyro, who was working might and main over a patient burning up with fever. When gently entreated to know what he was doing, he snappishly replied: "Doing? Why, I'm trying to throw this man into a fit. I don't know much about fevers, but I'm death on fits. Just you let me get him into a fit, and I'll fetch him!" It seems to me we often go on the same principle — we work harder in laying plans to redeem those who have fallen, than to save others from falling. We seem to take it for granted that a certain condition of declension must be reached before we can work to advantage. I repeat again: *We do not begin soon enough with the children.* It seems to me that both church and state have yet to learn the vast import of those matchless words of the Great Teacher himself, already quoted, when He said, pointing to a little child: "He that receiveth him in my name, receiveth Me." He said it, because with omniscient vision, He saw the wonderful folded away possibilities within the little child.

Frederick Froebel, the founder of the Kindergarten system of development, had devoted nearly a whole life-time to teaching, when he began to think that there was a radical deficiency in the manner of developing little children. He reasoned thus: We force the mind too much. We do not supply the proper conditions, and then leave it to its own free, natural unfolding. We do not begin at the beginning. Too much has to be undone in later years, that has been done wrong from the outset. Children are cramped, distorted and paralyzed in their faculties by the rigidity of the old-fashioned methods. "We learn through doing" — that is the basis of the Kindergarten method.

The time allotted me for this paper will not permit of my going into anything like the *rationale* of the Kindergarten system. I can only emphasize a few salient points. You ask, what we claim for the Kindergarten as a child-saving work? I will tell you what we claim. We claim that the Kindergarten is the best agency for setting in motion the mental and moral machinery of a little child, that it may do its own work in its own way. It is the water turned upon the wheel to set the wheel in motion. It is the rain, and dew and sun, to evoke the sleeping germ and bring it into self-activity and growth. It is teaching the little child to teach himself. It is controlling the little child that he may learn the art of self-control. The Kinder-

garten devotes itself more to ideas than to words, more to things than to books. It begets within the child the power of assimilating knowledge into character and competency for the highest uses of life. What comes in at the open doors of the senses is turned into practical power. Habits of observation are cultivated, and mere abstract truths are kept in the background, awaiting the time when reflection naturally begins to overhaul and assort the varied material that perception has been gathering in. What the child learns in the Kindergarten, is calculated to make him keep his eyes wide open on his way home. He is taught to *think*, and that is the primal thing.

The Kindergarten cultivates head, heart and hand. It is the best preparation for the arts and trades. Its gifts and occupations represent every kind of technical activity. The senses are sharpened, the hands are trained, and the body is made lithe and active. The children in the Kindergarten must work for what they get. They learn through doing. They thus develop patience, perseverance, skill and will-power. They are encouraged by every fresh achievement. What they know, they must know thoroughly and accurately. Every element of knowledge is transformed into an element of creation. The mind assimilates what it receives, just as a healthy organism assimilates its food, and is nourished thereby. In his occupations in the Kindergarten the child is required to handle, reconstruct, combine and create. Even play is utilized, and has its educative function. What is aimed at, is, to give the child *ideas*. We do not need fine rhetoric — valuable as that is — half as much as we need sensible, practical ideas. There is a world of truth in the famous inventor's counsel to a young man, where he says: "Study to have *ideas*, my boy, study to have *ideas!* I have always found, if I had an idea, I could express it on a shingle with a piece of chalk, and let a draughtsman work it out handsomely and according to rule. I generally had ideas enough to keep three or four draughtsmen busy. You can always hire draughtsmen, but you cannot hire *ideas*. Study to have ideas, my boy! It is better to be the master of a little knowledge with the power to use it creatively, than to be the unproductive carrier of all the learning in the libraries. Study to have ideas! Life will give no end of opportunities for using them." The aim of the Kindergarten is, to make the mind creative, to stimulate thought, to beget ideas.

The moral and religious influence of the Kindergarten can scarcely be overestimated. The Kindergarten does not attribute every mistake of a child to total depravity. To be perpetually telling a little child, even a very naughty child, that there is no good thing in him, that he is vile and corrupt, is one of the very best ways of making a rascal out of him, if he has any spirit in him, and of making a little hypocrite of him if he is mean-spirited and weak. And this holds equally true of all children, whether they come from the palatial homes of the rich,

or the wretched homes of the poor. There is more ignorance than depravity when a little child goes wrong. He must stumble and fall many times before he learns to walk uprightly, either physically or spiritually. He must learn to climb the stairs of moral difficulty as he learned to climb the household stairs. As we patiently wait for the body to unfold and do its best, wisely guiding it all the while, so should we patiently wait for the soul unfolding. All education is a growth, not a creation. And to all growth belongs the element of time. A child goes to the Kindergarten as an apprentice goes into a shop, to learn something. He knows little. He has everything to find out. His mind is the tool-chest. His faculties are the implements. Suppose he does make mistakes? His mistakes are not depravity. We are none of us born with the "trade of conduct" learned. What are the mistakes of a child? It is the little carpenter at work with the hammer and nails, trying his best to drive the nail, but hitting his thumb instead of the nail. Poor little fellow! He has the worst of it. See that irrepressible boy! The basilar faculties in him are tremendous. You ought to thank God for them. They are the drive-wheels which, rightly used, will make him a leader and a commander among men. Train that boy in and through these faculties. All the faculties have mates. Over against combativeness stands benevolence. If the former is likely to get on the rampage, touch up the latter. If courage is likely to mount into rashness, touch up fear a little. The primal idea of all government should be to teach a child to govern himself at the earliest possible period. And to learn how to govern himself a child must be indulged in self-government. The true teacher will be aiming all the time at the child's enfranchisement — not in making him an unwilling slave. The law of kindness bodied forth in eye and lip and hand, will make a royal government. The rafters of love will make a home of law. And this is the principle on which the Kindergarten governs its pupils. Hence, it may be termed a child-saving institution.

Above all, the true Kindergarten aims at the cultivation of the heart and soul in the right direction, and leads them to the Creator of all life, and to personal union with Him. The law of duty is recognized by the little ones as the law of love. It is the aim of the Kindergarten to lead the little ones to their Heavenly Friend. They are taught to love Him. They are taught to love one another, to help one another, to be kind to one another, to care for one another. No one can love God who does not love his fellows. The child in the Kindergarten is not only *told* to be good, but he is actually *helped* to be good. The very foundations on which true character rests are laid in the Kindergarten. Habits of virtue, truth, purity and usefulness, are here inculcated; and what is character but crystalized habit?

One of the most distinguished writers on the great law of heredity, says: "It is certain that lunatics and criminals are as much manufactured articles as are steam engines and calico printing pres es. They are neither accidents nor anomalies in the universe, but they come by law, and testify to causality; and it is the business of science to find out what the causes are and by what laws they work." And this is especially the vocation of just such beneficent gatherings as the one that convenes to-day.

A republic that expects to survive, and to increase in power and greatness, must see to it that she does not carry within her the seeds of her own dissolution. It remains forever true of nations as of individuals, that ignorance and crime breed dissolution and death.

As factors in society, what are we all doing to *prevent* crime? We may be very eloquent in pleading that punishment may be quick, sharp and decisive. We may be very vigilant in seeking to recover the criminal from ways of evil by wise and suitable punishment. But all this will not avail. As has been truly said, "Crime cannot be hindered by punishment. It will always find some shape and outlet unpunishable and unclosed. Crime can only be truly hindered by letting no man grow up a criminal; by taking away the will to commit sin, not by mere punishment of its commission. Crime, small and great, can only be truly stayed by education. Not the education of the intellect only, which is in some men wasted, and for others mischievous, but the education of the heart, which is alike good and necessary for all." We want that sort of education in earliest childhood years which has in it the element of real character-building. Such is the education which the Kindergarten gives. The heart, as well as the head, comes in for its full quota of training. The Kindergarten regards right action to be quite as important as rare scholarship. It works for both, knowing that ignorance and lack of character in the masses will never breed wisdom, so long as ignorance and lack of character in the individual breed folly.

The Kindergarten work in San Francisco is growing rapidly and healthfully. Its manifest results, in the charity field of its operations, awaken a lively interest among the wealthy taxpayers of the city. They give liberally for its support. The past year has been one of signal blessing. The intelligent interest and warm-hearted sympathy evinced from the first by thoughtful men of affairs, and philanthropic citizens generally, in this great reformatory and educational work, has steadily increased, until now there are thirteen charity Kindergartens, with an enrollment of about eight hundred children from three to six years of age. Among the most generous supporters of this work are Mrs. Charles Crocker and Mrs. Leland Stanford, who have made the subject one of careful study, and who rec-

ognize in it foundation-work looking to the permanent good of this great commonwealth. Several of these charity Kindergartens are largely supported by these noble-hearted ladies. Four of these Kindergartens were organized by my own bible class, and could I be present with you to-day I much fear I should encroach upon the time of the Conference by relating many incidents connected with our work on the Barbary Coast, which is the "Five Points" of San Francisco. The marked improvement among the little ones is so manifest to the wholesale dealers on the water front, that they give us liberal subscriptions voluntarily, characterizing it as the best charity work done in the city.

One thing is certain, the state begins *too late*, when it permits these children to enter the public school at six years of age. It is locking the stable door after the horse is stolen. It is trying to make a safe and trusty animal out of one who has understood the art of running away. We repeat it again, primal work is the most important of all; it is foundation work. If the line be out of plumb at the beginning, woe be to the edifice. The higher the walls climb the more conspicuous will be the foundation blunder — the more perilous the building. In view of this fact, it seems to me, the most valuable period of childhood for formative purposes, is yet unclaimed by the state. The richest soil lies unpre-empted and uncultivated. But it does not lie idle. The more is the pity. Brambles take the place of flowers; noxious weeds the place of delicious fruitage. Would that the educational guardians of this country could provide a vicarious motherhood, through the Kindergarten, for those teachless little ones, whose homes lack this divine nurturing. By thus brooding over the void of unformed manhood and womanhood, they would bring order out of chaos, light out of darkness, happiness out of misery, and virtue out of vice; for bring more of happiness into childhood, and you shall bring more of virtue; for "virtue kindles at the touch of joy." If the state does not attend to this work, then Christian philanthropy must do it. Where is the sense of teaching a little child to pray: "Lead us not into temptation," if we do nothing under the sun to keep the child out of the way of temptation?

The labors of the U. S. Commissioner, Gen. John Eaton, have been invaluable in this direction. It seems to me that no bureau of the government has so important a vocation as this. I wish his strong pleadings for national infant schools could be heeded! Only such schools as these, moulding and shaping character by careful training and habit, will ever build up a vigorous, healthful, virtuous, national life. Only such schools as these will make poor-houses, insane asylums, penitentiaries, prisons, jails, and houses of correction unnecessary.

Does it cost too much? Nay, not so. Even a portion of the money which is expended on these penal and reformatory insti-

tutions, if devoted to Kindergarten work, would make these corrective institutions unnecessary in a few years. It is an omen for good, that a memorial for a free national training school and model Kindergarten, signed by the highest educational authority from fourteen states, has been presented to congress. The first memorial was presented by our lamented President, James A. Garfield, some three years since. I feel sure that, sooner or later, this system of developing the faculties of a little child, will be accepted as the true method. It is Nature's own method, and who follows Nature never can go wrong.

I want to say, in closing, that if the civil authorities do not attend to the little neglected children of the streets, then, surely, Christian philanthrophy should do it. Christianity, thank God, is coming to be more and more practical in its aspect and work. We are coming to feel, more and more, that a religion which has everything for a future world, but nothing for this world, a religion that neglects this present life, is a mother who neglects her infant, with the expectation that manhood will set everything right. A genuine religion concerns itself much about the little ones — the helpless little ones who have been hurled prematurely against the life-wrenching problems of existence. Perhaps we shall find at last, in the day of final disclosure, that the deepest and most far-reaching influence we ever exerted, was the influence that we exerted over the little neglected children of the street. Perhaps we shall find it to be the very best work we ever accomplished. At all events, dear friends, it is well to live well. And he lives the longest who lives the best. He is great who confers most of blessing on mankind.

The discussion which followed covered two different aspects of the Kindergarten, its ordinary educational work and its child-saving work. The report is condensed, to give, as far as possible, only the latter feature.

During the discussion Governor Jerome, of Michigan, presided.

Col. Gardiner Tufts, Massachusetts: The institutions under my care have eight schools, one of which is a Kindergarten, in which we have trained teachers. I am in doubt somewhat as to whether we have done all that might be done, or that is desirable to have done, and whether we are giving our teachers too much to do or not: and whether it is an agency that reaches down to this very class of children which we call waifs — those which we get into our institutions. They natu-

rally take to noise and dirt and rollicking, and I sometimes think that we do not sufficiently fix their thoughts to draw them out, up and above the places where we find them. The necessities of our institution compel us to have practically two schools, one in the forenoon and one in the afternoon, to include and provide for all we have. I believe the rule is three hours for instruction. From the necessities of our case I have been compelled to invite these teachers to take the same number of hours as the teachers in the other schools, and we do the best we can; and I want to know whether we should require less time of the teachers, and also whether the methods do go down far enough to catch and hold all these children, or whether there should not be some modification, some steps a little further down. I am afraid it might be quite different with these children from those of our families, and that we sometimes misapprehend the depth to which they have fallen; and whether we reach down far enough. There is a great difference among the children of families, and so it is with these children, many of whom have never had a home or have known the care of parents. I would like to know if the Kindergarten reaches down low enough to most effectively reach this class of children.

L. P. Alden, Michigan: When I took charge of the state school for dependent children at Coldwater, I aimed to prevent crime by separating the children of from three to twelve years of age from the others. I made a somewhat thorough investigation of the Kindergarten system of schools. I corresponded with Miss Peabody, and got hold of all the information I could, and came to the conclusion that it was enormously expensive, so much so that the tax-payers would never consent to appropriate funds for that purpose. A teacher could not instruct more than fifteen or twenty children; the room must be provided with carpets each year; the room must have a musical instrument, and other expenses, and the expense of running the schools would be largely increased, and so I came to the conclusion that it would not be best to start a Kindergarten, but to introduce as many of its leading features as could prac-

tically be done, in our own school. I believe they can be largely engrafted on all our schools, and that the general principle is correct; but I believe with Col. Tufts, that it will not reach that class of children we are laboring for as thoroughly as it would the children of more cultivated families. I don't think it is as attractive to them.

Rabbi S. H. Sonnnenschien, Missouri: I have all reverence and deference for the Kindergarten, but we are to deal with the root of evil, the parents of the child; how are you going to force them to give up the child; what right have you to tear away the child from the mother — for although she may be a criminal, she is a mother nevertheless, with the feelings of a mother. Shall we adopt the system of some of the European countries to prevent such children, preventing such parents from marrying? The question we are to consider is how we can induce the poor parents to give up these children which they cannot properly care for to the state, the town or the county, to properly provide for them; to separate them entirely from their homes. Will not that be wrong, no matter how poor and filthy that home may be. That is an important question for discussion.

Dr. David Rogers, New York: I think an ounce of prevention is better than a pound of cure. It will be only a short distance in the future before our prisons will be closed if we can educate the young and prevent crime.

L. P. Alden, Michigan: In the state of Michigan the children can be taken from their parents when they are not properly cared for by them, on the theory that the state has a right to protect itself, and the courts frequently interfere for the protection of children of tender years; and they frequently take them from one parent and give them to the other when the welfare of the child demands it; and the welfare of the child is always in view. The state has a right to protect itself, and can take a child from its parents, when it is being trained to a life of shame, on the ground that the child's rights are equal to the parent's rights and ought to be sacredly protected, and I think there are decisions of courts to that effect.

J. H. MILLS, North Carolina: There has been something said in regard to the New York Children's Aid Society. It has been the policy of that society to gather up the vagabond children and send them west. In regard to this society I want to ask a question or two and say a word. About once a year, in February, a man comes to North Carolina and brings a large company of children and gives them out to the farmers of a certain district without asking any questions or obtaining any information regarding them, or any security for their proper care or protection. In the south there are two classes of men, as in some other parts of the world, one good, the other bad. The good men are generally willing to pay for their labor. The bad men want to dodge paying in every possible way, and if they can hear of boys to give away they want them in the cotton fields. They want them about February, and they bring the boys from New York then. Their slaves being set free, these men needing labor take these boys and treat them as slaves. By every one of these families, by the father and mother, and son and daughter they are treated like dogs. Now what right has this society to take these children from the street, or away from their own good schools or houses of reformation, denying them the means of improvement, and send them there to receive inhuman treatment, where they are treated as the children of slaves were treated. Well may these children of the street say: Save me from such salvation as that.

Another observation. A short time ago some of these children were brought to a town in our state. All of them were given away but six. One of our *good* men was present. The gentleman who had them in charge appealed to him. He said I believe I will take them all and try them. He intended well. He took these six home into his family to eat with his sons and daughters. They were a set of young barbarians and did not know how to act, or hardly use a word properly in company, and he could not stand them in his family. He told a neighbor to take them down to his house and see if he could make them behave. A few days after that the neighbor returned and said they were barbarians, that they had no civilization, no manhood.

All that the first man could say was: Drive the boys off; and they became vagabonds in our state. Would it not be better for New York to properly train them until they are educated and then send them out. They were sent down to our country with no compulsory contract. They take the children right away from their own schools and send them where they get no schooling, and call that charity and doing good.

E. W. Chase, Minnesota: I would like to make an inquiry in this connection. In the work of our society for the relief of the poor in St. Paul, there is scarcely a month but some of these boys that have been sent out by the Children's Aid Society come to me, who have run away from the parties with whom they have been placed to be brought up. One boy who had been placed with a family of Menonites came there. He said he could not live with the family where he had been placed; that he could not get enough to eat, and that they did not use him right. I would like to know if this society has any means for looking after these children and seeing that they are properly taken care of after they are sent out to the places.

W. J. Scott, Ohio: When we come to the discussion of this matter we find a great many difficulties in the way. There has something been said about the directions to follow, and about the evil tendencies of an evil disposition. I live where quite a number of these waifs have been imported from New York. Some of them are born constitutional thieves, and you may put them in the country and in the schools of Ohio, or in any college in the state, and they would come out as they were born. This is an unfortunate feature of a certain class of these people. I think there is no question at all of the congenital condition of many of them, and the disposition of many of them for stealing everything they can get their hands on, whether it is useful or not. We have not got to the millennium period yet.

But what shall we do with them? It is the duty of the state to maintain these people as well as it can, and reform them in every possible way. There is no doubt about that, and in this large country we are just beginning to feel the pressure. In Austria the state takes them away from the parents and takes

care of them. In my city the charity of the wealthy of the community provides for them largely, and a single gentleman there only a few years ago gave $870,000 to build a palace for this kind of people to live in, and the Ladies Aid Society takes care of them after they are put in there. Occasionally a boy is picked up out of the street and sent to this house to aid him in making a decent, respectable man. Bnt with all the appliances at hand, we have a class that come out just as they went in, notwithstanding all the religious instruction, and all the other means for their improvement and education that can be made use of. The unfortunate part of the thing is that they are not improved. When I say this I know what I say, for I have been there and seen it work.

There is some reason in the objection to taking the children from the care and support of parents, however mean that is, and putting them in these large children's homes where so many other children are; and after they have been kept there five, six, or eight or ten years, they are all alike; they all have the same character. You can see it to a certain extent in the children of the common schools; they have all been trained in one way; they all think in one way; they all look in one way. They are not of that independent character that you get in the family or among the children raised in the family at home. We begin at the wrong end. Educate the family, the fathers and mothers, and you can reach them just about as easily, and in a majority of cases as well as you can the child directly.

Dr. David Rogers, New York: I would like to ask this gentleman (Mr. Mills) who has made these statements in reference to these — vagabonds is the term he used — whether they are not exceptional cases. This charity that is given in New York to send these children west, is given by persons of noble hearts, and I believe that they are doing God's work. There is no intention on the part of New York state or city to impose on any part of the United States. Are these not exceptional cases and rare instances where these children have been found in the southern states? If so, it cannot be so bad a picture as has been presented to this Conference. If they are general,

present them in your papers that they do exist, and I assure you that the philanthropy of New York will soon correct it.

C. B. Lockwood, Ohio: I was about to say what has been said by my friend from New York, and would ask this question, whether or not where so great a work is being carried on, it is strange that some injustice should be done; and are you not doing an injustice in taking exceptional cases and holding them up as the average, when there are thousands who have been made honorable men and women by being sent out from New York city? It is better for them if we desire to make them men and women; it is almost their only hope, and I seriously object, from many years' experience, to gathering them in these institutions to grow up to manhood, but if at all possible, to put them in families. I would rather have a boy in my employ with half the education, if he has been brought up in the family where he will learn to do some kind of work, than have one kept in one of these institutions. I almost always find that one of these institutional boys is not able to do the work. The education in families will better fit them for life than all they get in these institutions. I would be glad if just as fast as possible they could be scattered among the families of the nation, where they of necessity would get more education and experience to fit them for life. I make it one of my first duties to get them from the city out into the country, and into families to fit them for life. I believe this is far better than to keep them in the best institutions, and the great mass of them become good men and women in that case..

E. W. Chase, Minnesota: I have only spoken of those cases that have come under my notice. I hope they are exceptions.

Phillip G. Gillet, Illinois: I do not know why these children from the east should be judged differently from our own. Some turn out badly and some well. We magnify the evil and overlook the good. The result of this work in Illinois has not been as related in N rth Carolina. It has been generally the other way. Bad people reject them and good people have opened their houses and h mes to them, and in some cases they have made very valuable men and women. Their previous con-

dition in society is not known. When they become adults they become the best members of society. They are under no obligation to tell where they came from. Sometimes they do, but generally not.

I was present at the exposition in Paris, in 1878. I visited the educational department. I found a portion of it in charge of a young man. I had seen him before; I told him some of my early history. He opened his heart and told me some of his. His early recollections were of some of these refuges in New York. He had been taken up by some of these societies and brought to Illinois; had done well, and by hard work had passed almost through one of the best colleges in the Mississippi valley, and had been taken as a confidential clerk to the commissioner appointed to the Paris exposition, and after its close he was coming back to graduate with honor. He was an honorable, useful man; and no doubt there are a great many other such cases as this. It is unjust and unfair to prescribe a cast iron, rigid rule to apply to these unfortunate children when we would not apply the same to our own, and very often they will average as good as our own.

W. J. Baxter, Michigan: I will not occupy much of your time this morning, but this Children's Aid Society in New York takes these children from the street and immediately sends them north, south and west and puts them in homes without necessary inquiries as to the character and habits of the children, and of the homes in which they place them. They want them adopted. In some families they might do well, but in other families they will not do well, but turn out badly and run away. In our own town, out of ten children placed in good families on one occasion, and with families desiring them, only one remained for three months, the rest all ran away from families in which they might have done well. It seems to me these children ought to have some training, and some careful supervision after they are placed in these homes, and they ought to have some one to look after them, and if they are in unsuitable homes, to place them in homes that are more suitable. I agree that there should be homes found for these children as soon as possible,

but there should be some preliminary work done, and in placeing them out very great care should be exercised, and they should be cared for afterwards.

From Coldwater there have been placed in families 719, who have been bound out and given good homes. Of that whole number 642 still remain in these homes. Seventy-seven of these children that have once been bound out are now in good, comfortable houses of their own, or gone out as men and women to take an active part in the duties of life. There is truth on both sides; let us get some practical advantages in the interests of humanity. Don't let us say that they have done wrong, but point out where they may rectify their methods and do more good.

Col. Gardiner Tufts, Massachusetts: On the question of taking children from their parents, I wish to say a word, and refer to the Massachusetts law of last year. Under that law our officers or any citizen, can go before a magistrate and get an order to have the children put under care and custody during their minority, or bound out, with the necessary provisions for their maintenance, and their attendance at the primary schools. Under this law I think some forty cases have arisen. The parent is not notified, and need not be, but a citizen goes and reports to a magistrate the facts and the magistrate is authorized to proceed, and they do so. They may take a whole family. A portion are sent to the institution under my care, but that is only temporarily. The boarding expense is about $1.50 to $2.00 per week, and something for clothing. But the school is only temporary. The intention is to place them in families as soon as it can be properly done. In some instances three children in one family have been taken.

Mr. Wines, of Illinois, described a monument to Crewzot, the founder of the famous French iron establishment, done in iron, which he had seen at the Paris exhibition in 1878; a statue, with a working woman at the base pointing her son to the great man and saying: Be like him, and you may one day stand where he stands. From this he drew the moral that whoever rises or helps another to rise exerts an influence over all

who see him, which impels them to attempt to rise also. With respect to home life or institution life, he thought that one might be the best for some and not for others; but gave the preference to the family, if it is only the right family. Instead of speaking of children, in the mass, he would study the individual child, for children differ, as the flowers do. The great practical difficulty in the administration of public and private charity is to descend from generalities to particulars and to exercise a wise discrimination.

PRESIDENT ELMORE: Charity begins at home. I have never been to Paris nor seen the sights of the great exhibition, but I have seen street arabs from New York, and I have seen a score of them in the industrial school at Waukesha. I have never seen one that made a good boy; there may have been such, but he has never been called to my attention. I do not doubt but the intentions of the society are good, as my friend from New York talks of. But when they have placed these children in the west, do they look after them a moment? Not any. They get them off their hands and that ends the story. This subject is not now discussed for the first time. It was quite fully discussed at Detroit and at Saratoga. It has been brought up almost every time at the meetings of our conference. I have yet to find the first one of these boys sent west who has become a good man, though Prof. Gillette has found one in Paris. These boys come here and then they are neglected. They are educated under the influences of vice and crime before they are sent here, and being neglected they commit crimes, and being arrested, they give their names as John Smith or Jim. Mokes, or something like that. It is only after being placed in the Industrial School for Boys, and after we are able to get their confidence that they will give their right names, and not always then. The gentleman from Michigan has told you of this good work there. He don't tell you of what ought to be done — that when one of their children gets away from their school they have the supervision of him, that they have some one to look after him and to admonish him, and if he is wronged, to see that he is made right. In that way you will do some good; but those

thieves, liars, vagabonds, as we call them, they bring them west and turn them loose without any after supervision, and it would be as well if you cut their jugular veins in the first place, I was almost going to say — that it would be better for them and for us. They come here and make tramps and burglars, and all kinds of criminals. That's my story.

Dr. James W. Walk, Pennsylvania: I am surprised at some things I have heard in this Conference. At the meeting last night one of the speakers proposed to knock the insane in the head; and now comes this proposition to cut the jugular veins of another class of unfortunates, and that proposition comes from one of the most benevolent men I ever saw. But I must add my voice to what has been said by the president of this conference. You cannot gather grapes from thorns nor figs from thistles.

I was impressed by Mr. Wines' story of the statue, but I think he has drawn from it the wrong lesson. Was that boy on the statue, with one of his mother's hands resting with a benediction on his head, and the other pointing towards heaven, a vagabond boy? No! Such a boy as that is no vagabond. If we would call him by that name, then let us go to that grave at Cleveland and inscribe *vagabond* upon the tomb of that illustrious man, whose boyhood, surrounded by poverty, but guided by the councils of a noble mother, ripened into the manhood which adorned the presidency of our country. No boy is an outcast who has beside him a wise and loving mother. Vagabond boys do not have that kind of mothers.

Boys with good mothers are not the kind of boys that are sent west by Mr. Brace and others. Of this abandoned class we must not expect too much. It is folly to expect from these children, gathered from the streets of the large cities, the results that can be obtained from the children of the laboring and honest poor. I do not care how much kindergartening you give them, nor how much education you give them, you cannot quickly eradicate the tendency to evil and crime in their natures.

My object in rising was simply to cast a little doubt on the proposition made by the gentleman from Michigan — not doubt

as to the success of the school at Coldwater — I heartily believe in that school; but I believe it is an exception. I believe that school is splendidly managed; but it does not follow that because the Michigan school has had such a success the same system, under another management, would prove equally successful. In Philadelphia we have a school which is chiefly supported by charity, with some supplement in the way of state appropriations. It was organized in 1852, and up to 1878 four thousand children had passed through it. The custom is to retain children until proper homes can be found for them. In 1878 I made an investigation of the records of all the children since the founding of this "Home." As I have said, the system pursued is to keep the children in the institution until they have received some training, and then to place them in families in Pennsylvania, New Jersey and Delaware. The object has always been to put these children into families who would receive them into their affections rather as children than as servants. It has been the design to keep up a frequent correspondence, and to visit each child at least once a year. From my examination of the twenty-five years of work of this institution, I am prepared to say that the results would disappoint both the friends and the enemies of the orphanage system. A large proportion of these children have served out their terms of indenture and become useful citizens. But very many of them have run away from their places, in some instances drifting back to the old haunts in the city. Probably the results here would have been better if the plan of yearly visitation and frequent correspondence had been more faithfully adhered to; but taking the facts as they are, they show that while the average condition of these children is much better than it would have been but for the fostering care of the institution, it is equally true that the large percentage of failures proves that we have not yet reached the best methods of child-saving philanthropy.

J. H. Mills, North Carolina: As far as my information goes this class constitutes the rule. I have been traveling over our state for the last fifteen years, and I have not been able to find a single one of these boys who have been sent out by the New

York society who had a good place or was doing well. To give you an idea of the place where these boys are put, we have down there, near the sea coast, a class we call sand-fidlers. They are bad places for boys to go to. About five months ago one of the boys in one of these places could not stand the treatment and ran away. It is one of the plans to treat them so that after they have done a season's work they will run away. One of them had a boy for three months. The man would not let him have any paper to write to friends; he told him that all his kin were dead, and would not let the boy write. The treatment of the boys was shameful. One of the neighbors told us, but begged us not tell who gave the information. Some of this kind will take a boy — will hire him for a year and work him hard till about the time the year is up he would get some accusation and scare him into running away. Some of these homes are almost as bad for these boys as the poor-houses described here last night.

There is a need in our state of better schools, and of teachers qualified to conduct them. One of our teachers went to New York to learn how to teach school and manage them in the best possible way, and came back to fill a position in our normal school to teach others the art. This work is a good one. But we need a law that will compel these boys to go to school. In our state there is no such law and bound boys are not sent to school. In nine years I have found only two bound boys who were allowed to go to school at all. What right have they to take these boys from New York and send them where they can never go to school again; where they are kicked out of society, and compelled to associate with the lowest negroes we have.

Dr. Dana, Minnesota: *Mr. President:* I believe we are unjustly impeaching one of the first philanthropists of this country, for I don't believe that Mr. Brace would be a party to any such carrying on as has been stated here to-day. I don't believe it is fair to say that the instances of neglect of these children given here to-day is the common result of their disposal through the west; but if they are, as the President has stated on this floor to-day, I think that society ought not to be

so severely and publicly criticised until they have been properly notified. It is a very serious thing that such a great society, conducted by the leading philanthropists of New York, should have such charges brought against them. I am perfectly amazed, for as a pastor I have been for giving aid to that society. I have heard of some exceptional cases, but I have never heard before such charges as have been brought here to-day, and I don't believe that Mr. Brace himself is aware of the fact that these children are turned loose by wholesale out on our broad prairies. It is strange that no word has been allowed to go back to him that they have been abused or wrongly treated. I have never understood that this was their system, but on the other hand that they do seek to know what kind of homes they are put into, and afterwards to know whether they are mutually satisfied, and the children well treated.

Another thing I would like to call the attention of this conference to, and that is the sale of intoxicating liquors to minors in our metropolitan cities. Something must be done to prevent making drunkards of them before they go out from home. In my own city not long since were found five boys dead drunk under a tree, made so by liquors sold them. We have been compelled in St. Paul and Minneapolis to organize a citizen's league to prevent the sale of liquors to our children, and for their protection against the liquors sold over the public bars of the city. We have organized in the name of humanity to save these children from being brought early into intemperate habits. I believe the crime of selling intoxicating liquors to children one of the greatest that can possibly be committed, and one from which the young ought to be protected.

There is also another thing I wish to speak of, one of the greatest crimes against society, against which I believe no word has been said here, and that is the terrific effects of the circulation of bad papers by which not only the adult people are reached, but also in our cities the young have them continually spread before them by being placed in the windows for every passer by to gaze at, and from which the young ought to be protected. It is a part of the province of this society to rescue

the children, and not only by means of schools and kindergartens and other institutions, but these things also should be considered. We ought to have conscience and law enough to prevent the sale of and sweep out of existence this whole class of disreputable papers and save our youth from these vile impressions, which once received never fade from the memory. I wish you philanthropists who are on this floor would take some action on this matter and say some word for the associations that are working in this direction.

H. H. Giles, Wisconsin: The inquiries seem to call on me for some explanation and to give a little history. The conduct and operations of this New York society were first ventilated at the Detroit session seven years ago. I made a little speech on it there. The matters I alluded to were then fresh in my mind. Just previous to that the society had brought to this state I think fifty boys. In a little town of this county six of them were placed. Their history was that out of these six, five ran away in less than four weeks. One of them remained and became an honest, respectable citizen. In the north part of this state I met him two years ago. This was in the early spring or summer; in the fall, in visiting the industrial school at Waukesha, we found six of the fifty in that institution; and our later investigations failed to find a single boy of the six that proved to be honest except the one mentioned, and we notified the society at the Detroit conference that if they sent any more of these boys to Wisconsin without providing for their subsequent care we should ask the legislature of Wisconsin to make it an offense. These boys are gathered up from the streets; they are wild as Mexican mustangs, and they should be treated as such. The first thing should be to corral them and teach them to be obedient. This society is not particular to learn the character of the families in which they are placed, for I am quite intimate with some of the families with whom they are placed in this county. They get a family to take a boy and go off and leave him and no further care is taken of him. If they have pursued the same course in other states which they have in Wisconsin, I say these other states have a right to protect themselves from such influences.

HENRY J. DODGE, Illinois: It is fearful to behold the number of children who are on the downward road in Chicago. I was for some months agent for the Citizens' League. While on my work I had a chance to discover a large number of children patronizing the liquor saloons, the concert saloons and houses of prostitution. They have been the subject of investigation and exposure, as in a series of well written articles in the *Inter-Ocean* regarding that section of the city to which they have given the name of the "black hole." On State street there were counted between the hours of 7 and 10 o'clock in the evening, 1,400 persons passing in and out of one of these places, and 700 of these I suppose were under 15 years of age. At another place, out of 780 noted, 320 were boys, some of them under 9 years of age. Within an almost incredibly small proportion of the city, including South Clark, State, Van Buren and 12th streets, they have some 600 liquor saloons and 400 houses of prostitution, and over 3,000 prostitutes, two-thirds of whom are young girls under 20 years of age; and you will find them along up, from 11, 12 and 13 years of age. But when the government is as it is in Chicago, we can't expect the laws to be enforced. We have a Citizens' League, but it is only recently that the good, thinking people are coming to ask themselves: What can we do for the children of Chicago?

I would like to give the example of a young boy who came from this society at New York. He was put in a family in Chicago. He went to work and got his brother out here and paid his fare and got him work, and then he brought on his sister and got her work; and then he brought on a second brother and got him work, and at last the mother, and he is taking good care of her to-day, and is getting $17 per week, and is only 18 years of age. We need not go to Paris nor London to find boys who have been rescued by the Aid Society. For nine years I have been engaged in the same work, and I can give you more illustrations than I have fingers of those who have turned out well. And I feel like saying, for what God has done for us in Chicago: Bless the Lord, O my soul!

H. H. GILES, Wisconsin: I would say a word in reference to

this New York society. One of the gentlemen says the society ought to be notified if such a condition of things exist as has been related here, and an opportunity given for the correction of abuses, before we condemn it. These statements have been made year after year, and have been met in this conference. And some months after this matter was ventilated at the Detroit Conference, they published a report through the press that they had sent an agent to Wisconsin to investigate the matter, and that everything was all right. I want to say right here that no public officer, or member of the State Board of Charities and Reform, ever knew of the visit of the agent, and they have never been able to learn of any locality where that agent has been.

F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts: No one can have a higher opinion of Mr. Brace than myself. But these statements have come from every state in the west, and they are made by gentlemen whom I believe absolutely reliable. They come from parties in different states, and they make just as strong statements as Mr. Giles has. My inference is that it is as with the manager of an insane hospital that has outgrown his capacity to manage. So with Mr. Brace, the Children's Aid Society has outgrown his control. Much of the control is under agents. He trusts his agents and believes the statements they make to him, and he don't believe these things, which can be proved in any court of justice in every state in the west. I believe in spite of these things this Children's Aid Society is doing a good work, but we must not lose sight of the fact that it is done in a very inadequate way; and as Dr. Walk suggests, it shows the necessity of better supervision.

We have tried to do so in Massachusetts. Nearly sixteen years ago we undertook a system of visitation of every child that was placed out. For ten years preceding and up to that time nothing of that sort had been done. Since that time we have had a more or less efficient supervision of the children who have been placed out. This plan has worked well, but that it is wholly perfect in its results, I don't think any intelligent person can hold up his hand and say.

The term vagabond has been used here. It is not used as a

term of reproach, but of description. I suppose half of these children have a great inclination to move; it is a part of their nature. It is our part to keep them in the places where they are placed, but we can't always do so.

The work we are engaged in is earnest work, and though there are difficulties in the way, it is extremely encouraging. We must follow the instruction of the apostle; we must be all things to all men, that haply we may save some. We do save some, and it abundantly justifies the work expended.

DR. CHARLES S. HOYT, New York: It was not my intention to take any part in this discussion, and I should not do so now were it not that the work of on old and honored institution of my own state — the New York Children's Aid Society — was called in question. This society is purely a benevolent organization, incorporated under the laws of the state, and managed entirely by citizens of New York city. I am well acquainted with its beneficial workings in New York, but cannot speak of its results in the west, except as learned through its reports. It is contrary to its policy to send criminal children out of the state; they are provided for in our various private and state reformatories. If, therefore, any such children have been sent to the west, the cases have been exceptional, and unknown to the society, and not in accordance with its general policy. It maintains about twenty industrial schools in New York, with a large corps of well qualified teachers, under the supervision and control of the Board of Education, and no child is sent out before receiving more or less training in these schools. The country counties often send children, through this society, to the west, but I believe that great care is exercised in the matter.

MR. SANBORN: Are there no means of identifying these children?

DR. HOYT: Possibly not, fully. I have always understood that the society had agents in the west to look after its childern when placed out, and that great care in the selection of homes for them was exercised. If one-half of what we have heard to-day in regard to the workings of this society in the west be true, some action ought certainly to be taken to correct the

evils. Its officers and managers are honorable, high-minded citizens, and I will venture to pledge, on their behalf, that if the name and whereabouts of any improper child sent by them to the west, be given, they will look after it, and if need be remove it to New York and place it in some appropriate institution. I can but believe that the cases to which reference has been made are exceptional ones, and should not be cited as condemning in general terms the workings of the society. Mr. Whitelaw Reid, formerly of Ohio, and editor of the New Yo k *Tribune*, has been actively engaged in the work of sending dependent children to the west for several years, with money collected through the *Tribune* office. He believes it to be right, and has done good service in working for the best interests of this class of children.

Dr. Byers, Ohio: And it is known that he sends a superior class of boys west, for some of them get back to New York be fore the agent that brought them out. [Laughter.]

Bishop Gillespie, Michigan: *Mr. President:* I move that this subject be laid on the table. Carried.

Adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

REPORTS OF STATES.

J. H. Mills, North Carolina: I have no formal report to make from North Carolina, I am sorry to say. Our state has institutions for the lunatic, the deaf and dumb and blind. I was in hopes that the gentlemen who represent these institutions would be here. There is at Raleigh an institution for lunatics, which contains about 250, is well managed, and supported by the state — that is for white lunatics. At Goldsborough there is also one for colored lunatics, in which, I think, there are about 50 patients, supported by the state, well managed, frequently inspected, and heartily approved by the people. There are not many colored lunatics in the state, because they are pretty well employed. I want to say that lunacy is generally prevented by regular habits, employment and contentment. The colored people are more regular in their habits, are generally employed, and generally in good health, as they can live in sicklier portions of the state than the white people can; they can live where the white people would die of chills and fevers. At Raleigh are the institutions for the deaf and dumb and blind, where they are well taught and are making satisfactory progress. They are sustained by the state and well managed. At the same place are the institutions for the colored people, but we think it best to have them separate from the others. They are under the control of the same officers as those of the white people, but the subordinate officers are colored people, and as far as I can learn the plan gives satisfaction. A large number of the deaf and dumb and blind are learning to read and write, so that they can go to any part of the state and make a living for themselves.

I am sorry to say that we have no house of correction, no reform school, or asylums for deserted children, and only one orphan asylum in the state, and that only nine years old, and

controlled by the grand lodge of Masons. The management of that I am accountable for, as it is under my charge.*

JUDGE J. W. HENRY, Missouri: I came here as a learner, not as a teacher. I have learned a great deal on this subject of which I was ignorant before. There is one subject germain to the one under consideration on which I have not heard one word spoken. I ought to state one thing that has not been done in the state of Missouri, nor in any state in the union, nor any country on the globe, as far as I know, in respect to one class of persons. Not one of them has made any provision for the poor convict who has served out his time in the penitentiary, or who has been discharged by executive clemency. Perhaps he comes out with a good resolution to lead a better life, but he finds that the world is closed against him, finds himself an outcast. Though when the convict comes out of prison he may try to live a stainless life, he can never wipe out the stain of incarceration, and many a one has been driven by the treatment of society back to his old haunts and associations and vicious life. Nor is it strange that this should be so. Man is a social being, and he will resort to the company of the wicked if he cannot associate with the good. It is largely the fault of the public that many who have fallen once are never able to regain a position in society. It is not all there is of charity to feed the hungry, clothe the naked and visit the poor. Words of encouragement contain often more value than barrels of beef or whole bakeries of bread. I consider this subject of great importance, though I have no remedy to propose, but I hope it will be reported on at the next session.

FRED. H. WINES, Illinois: I have no written report to make for Illinois, and there is no necessity for it, for this is the off

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*The speaker then proceeded to give a very interesting account in detail of the origin and history of the orphan asylum at Oxford (N. C.), and of his methods of management, and the peculiarities of the people with whom he had to deal. By the unanimous wish of the conference he was given a time much over the limit allowed for the report. Our limits forbid giving his speech in full, and it is impossible to give extracts which will do justice to it. It is therefore omitted, with great reluctance.—REC. SEC.

year. We have biennial sessions of the legislature, and after the next session we may have something to report.

At the last session it was said that we had suffered a loss by the burning of the wing of the asylum and, that preparations had been made to rebuild. I had hoped that the superintendent would be here and say something in regard to the results of the experiments that have been made. We had in that wing a very fair example of the ordinary close asylum, and we had in the superintendent, I thought, a man devoted to the idea of a close asylum, and I anticipated that the loss of the wing, with the separate dormitories, would be to him quite a misfortune, and I think he felt it to be so at first. We spent about $6,000 in building barracks in the form of shanties, upright boards battened, with a slight underpinning and no foundation, a temporary concern. Into that we put about 150 male patients. The rear of the center was devoted to a dining room, and in front were two offices and the clothes room of these patients, and on each side was a large associated dormitory with 75 beds in each ward. In the rear was built a high board fence to keep the patients from straying out of bounds in that direction, but no fence in front. The food was brought from the asylum kitchen and served in this dining room, and the patients slept there. We erected in each one of the large wards I think six cells for the solitary confinement of refractory patients, made of upright boards of lumber.

What are the results? The fact is the patients were delighted to get into these quarters. They liked them vastly better than the asylum. There were some patients who were refractory and noisy as long as they were kept in solitary confinement in the old building, who were perfectly quiet when they were put in these large dormitories. I suppose one reason was that watchmen sat up all night, and the patients felt it was all right as long as they had some one there whom they could speak to and trust. But it is a fact that patients who would halloo all night in their old quarters were quiet as lambs there, and I believe it is a fact that though there were cells provided for refractory patients where they could be confined during the night,

there was never a patient put in one of those cells. So that now instead of desiring to tear down those barracks since the wing is rebuilt, they are anxious to finish them off in better style, and keep them for use. They will not abandon them anyway.

In regard to other institutions, I have not much to say. The Kankakee hospital is in good working order. It now has between 300 and 400 patients. It is finally intended to be for about a thousand. Each detached ward will accommodate about fifty. I expect to explain the construction of this building to-morrow evening.

With regard to financial matters we continue to carry them on as described at previous conferences. We have introduced a new and improved system of book keeping. A peculiar feature of it is that it requires as complete an account for the supplies on hand as for the cash on hand. In these matters we are glad to see so much state pride has been developed. I take it to be a mark of progress.

REPORT OF MISSOURI.

BY BISHOP C. F. ROBERTSON.

In this state there is no general board of charities, and therefore no bureau from which can be gained facts as to the administration in counties. Reference will therefore be had only to state institutions, and those of the city of St. Louis.

There is but one penitentiary in the state, at Jefferson city. The latest report concerning its condition is up to the beginning of the year 1881. With a population in the state of two millions and a quarter, the average number of inmates of the prison is a little over 1,200; on January 1, 1881, the number was 1,218. One-third of the convicts are between the ages of 20 and 25. Taken as a whole the males bear to the females the proportion of 25 to 1. Among the whites however the proportion is 40 males to 1 female; while of colored persons the proportion is 10 males to 1 female.

Of the prisoners, one-third of the number were born in the state. The sentence of seven-tenths of the convicts is of from two to three years. One-fourth of the number are illiterate, not being able to read or write; seven-tenths can both read and write. The deaths of convicts each year average 2.17 per cent. of the entire number.

The industries in which the male convicts are employed, besides the detail of a small number of men about the capitol, are the making of harness, boots and shoes, and saddle trees. The labor is contracted for at the rate of forty-five cents a day. The practice of contracting men for out labor in coal mines has ceased. The prison has paid its expenses, and in the two years covered by the report has left a balance of $23,000 surplus. The daily cost of clothing and feeding the prisoners is eighteen and a half cents a day, and of guarding them eight cents a day in addition.

The amount of air which the construction of the cells allows to each prisoner is now 237 cubic feet, which, while much less than the accepted principles of hygiene and physiology demand for each person, is believed to be larger than that allowed in many of even the better prisons of the United States. Pure coffee has within a few years past been added to the diet of the prisoners with good hygienic and police results.

Until this year there had been no proper provision for insane convicts. Now however a separate building has been erected for them at Fulton, the site of the old state insane asylum, where they are properly cared for, of whom there were at the date of the last report 14.

There is no chapel to the prison. The dining room has to be used for the purpose, it is naturally very ill-adapted for a place of worship, and does not facilitate the chaplain's work. The chaplain is not exclusively occupied with the prison, he is only one of the ministers resident in the city whose service is partially secured by the payment of a stipend of $600 a year. He complains of the inefficiency of this arrangement.

In the city of St. Louis, with a population of, say, 375,000, the daily average of persons confined in the work house was 257 8-22, of whom nearly one third were females. The daily average cost of keeping prisoners there is 42 cents. The men break stone, and the women make coarse brushes. Of the 2,405 prisoners received within the year but three died.

The number of commitments in the city jails for the year was 1,674, of these one-seventh were women. As offenses become more grave, the proportion of men to women increases. Of course those who reported themselves as having no occupation, or whose business required small intelligence supplied the large proportion of the inmates.

The whole number of children in the House of Refuge for the year was 405; the proportion of boys to girls being three to one; the daily average was 234. The appropriation of $35,300 was not expended within $511. The average length of detention was nineteen months. All the children were under instruction, and a considerable number remained long enough in the shoe shop to acquire skill enough to earn their own living. There was but one death during the year.

There are three insane asylums in the state, those at Fulton and St. Joseph under the control of the state, the one at St. Louis in charge of the city. The reports of the first two cover a period of two years. In the asylum at Fulton during that time the number admitted was 461, and the number remaining was 507. Of the 280 discharged, 218 were reported recovered, and 19 as much improved. In the institution at St. Joseph 138 were admitted, and the number remaining was 195. Of the 143 discharged, 42 were reported as recovered, and 80 as much improved. At St. Louis during the last year, 215 were admitted, and 343 were remaining, the daily average being 333. Of the 88 discharged, 35 are reported as recovered and 29 as improved. On account of the crowded condition of the asylums, and in order to give place to new applications, a very considerable number of patients who are hopelessly unimproved, are from time to time discharged from the state institutions, and are remanded to the counties, where their condition, on the county farms and in the poor-houses is reported to be generally deplorable; the quarters are unfitted for their proper care, and the keepers are not competent for their guardianship. The percentage of recoveries in the Fulton asylum, is 47.29 of all admissions, and 89.38 of the recent cases. At St. Joseph the proportion of recoveries was 30 per cent., aud at St. Louis 16 per cent. More than three-fourths of the insane had been farmers, laborers, housekeepers, or with no occupation, where life had been marked with work involving solitude, routine, restricted mental action and low and unnutritious diet. Of the 1,045 in the three asylums, it is reported of 852 that their prospects of recovery are unfavorable, and of 93 others doubtful. The expenditure per annum for the care of the insane in the three asylums was $215,000, or $4 a week for each person.

In the St. Louis poor-house there are 678 inmates, of whom the majority have been admitted because of insanity. Of the 204 patients who were admitted as old and unable to work, and of whom the longevity is given, the average is 73 years. The mortality was 12 and one-half per cent. for the year. The average total cost of the daily maintenance of the inmates was 29.88 cents for each person, of which 13.37 cents was for the feeding.

Of the institutions for the deaf and dumb at Fulton, and for the blind at Fulton and St. Louis, I have no definite report to make. Nor can I speak adequately of the very large number of asylums and homes for the orphans, the magdalens, the sick, and other forms of need, which are maintained in the state, and especially in St. Louis, by religious benevolence. These christian institutions care for thousands of persons every year, and involve the voluntary contributions of scores of thousands of others.

REPORT OF CALIFORNIA.

BY REV. MARCUS LANE.

I am sorry to say that the public charities in California are not as complete and well organized as in most of the eastern states. Their growth has been from a kind of necessity, and not from any sentiment of liberality or general philanthropy. The first necessity, of course, was a prison system of some kind. The system adopted is the usual one of jails in each county, and a central penitentiary for the state. Accordingly fifty-one out of the fifty-four counties of the state have jails, administered according to the common plan generally seen at the east in the days when local prisons were unsupervised and unregulated by any central authority.

At an early date a state prison was built at San Quentin, but it was found a difficult matter to enlarge it from time to time to accommodate the increased demand for places for criminals. When at last, having grown to a capacity of 1,100 inmates, it was obliged to contain 1,500, the legislature made a liberal appropriation, and a new prison has been erected at Folsom which gives the needed relief.

The system of labor is no longer the contract system, but a very different one, where the state in various kinds of manufactures makes use of the labor of her convicts. One great advantage of this system is the facility it gives to the prison officials to graduate the labor of each individual to the requirements of each particular case, and to make the labor system of the prison in harmony with the general purpose of the reformation of the criminal.

Besides the state prison and county jails, there is in San Francisco a city prison and also a house of correction. In various parts of the state there are places for the confinement of prisoners that may be classed generally as lock-ups.

At a very early day it was found that California had to provide for an unusually large number of insane persons, partly owing to the demoralizing and exciting pursuit of gold hunting, and partly from the unrestrained life led by the early settlers. The result has been the creation and care of asylums for the insane above any other form of charity.

There are two asylums, one at Stockton with a capacity of 750 inmates, and one at Napa with a capacity of 650; but both are crowded, and it will be found necessary to build another asylum at an early date. The insane asylums being the chief charities of the state, have been liberally sustained, and are believed to compare favorably with those at the east.

California also has an institution for the deaf, dumb and

blind, near the city of Oakland, with about 300 inmates, very much overcrowded.

Beyond these institutions, California has no charities really entitled to be called state charities. At the last session of the legislature a vigorous effort was made to establish a reform school for boys, which failed to become a law, but suitable provision will probably be made at an early date.

The counties of the state have the usual provision for poor relief. In forty counties there are alms-houses or county hospitals, or infirmaries. These are the same thing under different names. Eleven counties have no alms-houses, and in three counties the paupers are provided for by contract on private farms.

There are, however, in California, a large number of public charities which are not supported by the state. In San Francisco county alone there are thirty-three institutions of various kinds that are more or less entitled to be called public charities. The Roman Catholic church alone has eleven orphan asylums in the state, providing for nearly 2,000 children.

The great need of California in the matter of its public charities, is a central supervising and directing authority, to bring the whole system under one complete and harmonious plan. No doubt at an early day suitable provision will be made, and when it is made, no doubt also the members of her board will not only find it proper to themselves represent their own state, but will find it necessary to attend in person every meeting of the National Conference of Charities, that they may drink in and profit by the admirable lessons that are here so finely inculcated.

REPORT OF DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, District of Columbia: It is my duty to report the death, in May last, of Mr. George A. Caswell, Secretary of this Conference for the District of Columbia; also to report the detention by illness, on the way to this conference, of my colleague, the Rev. A. Floridus Steele, pastor of St. Mark's church, of Washington, who was appointed by the commissioners to represent the District government at this Conference. Also it is my duty to report for the associated charities of the District of Columbia.

The charities and corrections of the District of Columbia are classified as United States Government institutions, and private charities. The Government Hospital for the insane, the Columbia Lying-in Hospital, and the National College for deaf mutes, are the property of and controlled by the United States. The

District Jail, the Washington Asylum and Work House, and the Boys' Reform School, are District Government institutions. The Soldiers' Home, the Providence Hospital, the Georgetown Industrial School, the Church Orphan Asylums, are private charities, some of them partially aided by legislation or appropriations. There are twenty-two private charities founded and sustained by the citizens of the District; a benevolent humane people, whose hearts readily respond to suffering and move towards its alleviation.

Yet, chiefly because the District of Columbia is the capital of the United States, the condition of its charities and corrections can be largely described as negative. We have no District Board of Charities, no Girls' Reform School, no prison for women, no school for alms-house and prison children, no institution for the blind, no inebriate asylum, no school for imbecile children, no tramp law, no law to protect children from cruelty, and it would seem from experience that nothing less than civil war would arouse congress to the necessity for enacting any of this humane legislation.

The United States Government institutions were mainly established during or immediately subsequent to the war, as war necessities, but have been continued and densely populated as necessities of peace and civilization.

The Government Hospital for the Insane was established by congress, for the humane care and kind treatment of the insane of the army and navy, and the District of Columbia; and those persons, especially from the army and navy, the founder of the institution, Dr. Nichols, told me were "the most vicious and profligate men on the face of the earth." He proposed and secured the passage of this measure, and the institution is now occupied by more than 1,000 men and women from all the walks of life, and from all quarters of the globe. There are few genuine cures. Patients are committed chiefly for the safety of the community. Many intelligent women believe this increase in numbers of the insane in the government hospital is a direct result of the civil war eighteen years ago, with its spirit of destruction, lawlessness, profligacy and general disorder, and the

effect upon the brains and nervous systems of men, women and children. These influences may have affected the general increase of insanity throughout the country.

The Soldiers' Home is the personal property of the soldiers of the United States, is supported by them, and is made a garden of beauty, for the comfort and enjoyment not only of the soldiers but of the people of the country, to whom are thrown open freely its many miles of charming drives and wondrously beautiful scenery.

Whether it is right and just that a republican capital, which contains no Girls' Reform School, no provision for abandoned infants and deserted young mothers, should have this beautiful retreat for able-bodied men, is open to doubt. A worthy woman once asked a hearty looking, middle-aged soldier in my presence, how long he had lived in that beautiful home. "Fifteen years, madam," he replied. "Where is your wife?" "Dead, madam," he responded cheerfully. "Yes," said the lady, knowing his history, "Your wife, sir, starved to death with her baby in her arms." He seemed embarrassed. "Where is your mother?" she continued. "I have not heard from her for ten years," he replied, brightening up, as if obviously there would be no responsibility for him in that direction. "I saw her," said the lady, "four weeks ago, in the alms-house of your native town, and she told me to find you here. How came you here? How dare you spend your life here, and leave those for whom you should be laboring to misery, starvation and pauperism?" "I was not well when I came," he said, "and have never seen my way to do anything else."

How wicked and cruel are these vast and irresponsible charities that shelter the strong and leave the weak and helpless to perish! To see that we have a board of charities and countless other reforms in the District of Columbia is everybody's business. When we ask members of congress for needed legislation, they say to us, "You should see how we do these things in Massachusetts." "Have you ever examined our admirable system in Ohio?" "You ought to visit Wisconsin."

Alas we do see, and examine, and visit and understand our

needs, but the men who make our laws are quite content with the charities and reforms in their own homes, and cannot take time to care for the abandoned child of the nation, the capital of the United States. Yet we have a resident population of 177,624, more than Oregon, Delaware or Nevada, or any one of the eight territories, more than Wisconsin had a few years ago.

Gen. Brinkerhoff, at the conference of charities in Boston, counted our county jail a model institution. It may be for men; I have visited the women, and have witnessed scenes I shall not describe to you, save one to illustrate a double need. I was requested to visit a woman there. The door was kicked open by the heavy boot of the attendant, a man of course. There was no matron. The women were huddled together, having covered their faces and crouched upon the floor upon hearing footsteps. "Come forward and show yourselves to the ladies," said the attendant roughly, himself uncovering their faces and pushing them forward. A colored woman of this company had murdered her boy, eight years old, by tying him up in a bag and beating him to death with a board. In her arms was a little sickly girl of three years, who looked terror stricken, and gave evidence of barbarous treatment. There being no provision for children of criminals, the women keep them in jail even when under trial for their lives. In the same room were girls and women on trial for petty offenses.

But within the past year a new baptism of life and light has come to the District of Columbia, and a large part of the illumination has come from this Conference of Charities and Corrections.

A year ago when the Eighth Conference was held in Boston we had just begun our organization of associated charities and were endeavoring to interest the citizens in the plans and practical work. I took full minutes of the proceedings of that conference.

As soon after the great national tragedy as circumstances would permit, the board of managers called a public meeting for the purpose of hearing this report, and I gave them every

essential fact relating to the associated charities of the United States, as presented at the conference. Ours was the sixteenth city to adopt these plans, but our citizens have addressed themselves to the work with an energy which promises to place us among the first in point of success.

The press has given excellent reports showing the practical workings in other cities, and commending every step of our work. We had early adopted a plan dividing the city into 19 sub-divisions. Within the space of three months 14 sub-divisions were in good working order, and the most worthy, benevolent and honorable of the citizens had joined the association and taken upon themselves their share of the responsibilities. Our membership already numbers 723. The entire number of applicants for aid have been 960, of whom we have furnished employment to 225, while 197 have been aided in a great variety of ways by transportation out of the city to their homes, by being placed in suitable institutions, by being furnished in cases of great distress with immediate relief. Our receipts have been $2,491.14, disbursements $1,921.31. Balance in central and sub-division treasuries $569.83.

We adopted the methods of the more successful organizations in other cities, and early decided to give no money nor its equivalent in food clothing or shelter to any able bodied person without compensation therefor in labor. We had been in the habit of believing that Washington had comparatively no industries, that it was a political center, and that only. We found that it was organization and distribution of labor and industry that were needed, and our registration office furnished the required information. Inefficiency, physical weakness, lack of training and contempt for labor are our chief obstacles.

One class of persons frequently applying to us for relief we mark, on our books, D. O. S.,— *disappointed office seekers*. From the 45,000 post office towns of the United States, ever they come and form a standing army, each one of whom was told in his native town, that if he would work to secure the election of a popular candidate, a good fat office would be waiting for him in Washington as soon as the election was

over. They believe this profoundly. They are sure to come and with just enough in their pockets to get to Washington. They do not intend to go away. Now there are only 10,000 offices in Washington, and there must therefore be constantly 35,000 post office towns that can not have any. These poor pilgrims are all D. O. S., and sooner or later they come around to us. The highest benefit we can confer upon them is to secure for them transportation home, sadder, and we trust wiser people than they come. And the highest benefit you can confer upon this class of persons, before they come, is to tell them the exact situation.

In reference to the colored people who constitute more than 50 per cent. of the population of the District, I am glad to be able to confirm the statement made by our friend Mr. Mills, of North Carolina. They have been reared to labor, they expect it, and ask for it, and do not with us compare as a perplexing problem with the poor white trash, the white tramps, or even the decayed gentility that come to us from states accustomed to slave labor.

REPORT OF IOWA.

BY DR. JENNIE MC'COWEN.

Few changes of any special character have taken place in the charitable and correectional institutions of Iowa since their condition was last reported to you.

We are still without a State Board of Charities. Gov. Gear in two successive messages recommended the establishment of such a board, but public opinion on the subject has not been sufficiently decided to induce any action on the part of the general assembly. We have, however, succeeded in getting a State Board of Health, containing in its membership some very able men, and though yet in its infancy comparatively, it gives good promise for the future.

Our public institutions are managed by local boards of trustees, the hospitals for the insane being under the further supervision of a visiting committee of three members, one of whom is a woman. The functions of the committee are purely advisory; they make monthly visits of inspection, and when required by the governor, make special investigation of alleged abuses, but have no power for correcting evils but by reporting upon them. Their supervision, strange as it may appear, does not extend to the poor-houses, in all of which are more or less

of the class of chronic insane paupers, returned to them from the hospitals for lack of room, nor to the county asylums, of which there are several.

Iowa maintains two penitentiaries. The number of convicts at the date of the last report, September, 1881, was 341. The additional penitentiary at Anamosa is not yet completed, but when finished, with its excellent system of sewerage, perfect ventilation and excellent heating apparatus, it is thought we shall have one of the model prisons of the country. It now contains 123 convicts. At this penitentiary a woman, Mrs. Merrill, discharges with perfect acceptability the duties of chaplain, teacher and librarian. The contract system of labor prevails, and the institutions are self-supporting. The management of our penal institutions is based upon the humanitarian doctrine of the reformation of the criminal as well as for the protection of society. Educational and religious instruction is provided, and an effort made to cultivate a better, truer and more self-respecting manhood, notwithstanding which, there is yet much to be desired in order to render the theory practically operative. Gov. Gear in his last message recommended the adoption of a system of graded prisons, whereby those convicted of grave offenses and sentenced for longer terms, and those convicted a second time might be sent to Ft. Madison; while those whose terms of service are shorter might be sent to Anamosa, thus protecting the youthful prisoner, sentenced perhaps for his first offense, from the contaminating influence of vicious and hardened convicts, for whom there is little hope of reform. Gov. Sherman recommended also, that the surplus earnings of the criminal, over and above the cost of his support, should be held in reserve for his own use at the end of his term of imprisonment, or if he may so choose, for the immediate benefit of his family. To these wise and humane provisions, if a third could be added — that of indeterminate sentences, it would give us an impetus in the right direction, the force of which, it would be difficult to estimate. The last report of our Secretary of State shows that there has been a reduction in court expenses during the last biennial period of about 5¼ per cent. The number of convictions for crime during the same period shows a diminution of 16½ per cent. as compared with the preceeding period ending 1879, and a decrease of 25 per cent. as compared with the period ending 1877. These figures are gratifying as indicating a marked decrease in the number of violations of the statutes, due perhaps to the enhanced general prosperity prevalent throughout the country.

An effort is being made to establish a reformatory for criminal women, upon the system which has worked so well in other states. But as there are only three women in one penitentiary and four in the other, the necessity therefor does not strike the average tax-payer as very pressing.

The hospital superintendents have for several years urged the establishment of a department for the criminal insane, in connection with the new penitentiary now in process of erection at Anamosa, a sufficient number of this troublesome and dangerous class being in each hospital to render the necessity self-evident; but as yet no action has been taken in the matter.

It is estimated that there are in the state over 1,500 insane persons. The state hospitals, with a capacity of about 300 each, contain something over 1,000 inmates, the one at Mt. Pleasant having at the date of the last report, 554, and the one at Independence 522. In order to relieve their overcrowded condition, instalments of those considered incurable have been from time to time returned to the county poor-houses. About ten or twelve counties have erected separate buildings on their poor farms for the care of their insane paupers, but there is a growing feeling throughout the state in favor of a central institution for the incurable, under state care.

The School for Feeble-minded is located at Glenwood, and has 194 inmates, with the number constantly increasing as its work becomes better known to the public. Although comparatively in its infancy, this school has already shown most gratifying results in the improvement in the personal habits of its inmates, politeness and good manners; their ability to be trained up to some form of self-supporting industry, and the progress they have made in the knowledge of school books. Such institutions as this must ever stand in the front rank among public charities which most strongly appeal to a generous state.

The Deaf and Dumb Institute, located at Council Bluffs, has 228 pupils, with a steady increase in its numbers. The course of instruction covers eight years, and this last year steps were taken to organize an academic class, preparatory to the National Deaf Mute College, at Washington, D. C. The steady improvement in the classes for lip reading and articulation, foreshadow encouraging results for many who are deaf but not necessarily dumb. The usual industrial pursuits are carried on in connection with the school.

The College for the Blind, at Vinton, has 132 pupils. This school is well organized with a full corps of officers and teachers. The National Commissioner of Education names this college as imparting a higher grade of education than any similar institution in the country. Instruction is given in the various branches of work which the blind are capable of pursuing.

The Orphans' Home, at Davenport, was originally one of three Soldiers' Orphans' Homes located in different parts of the state. As the number of inmates decreased until so many institutions were no longer a present necessity, all were transferred to the Home at Davenport, and as time passed on, with rapidly decreasing numbers, the Home was opened to indigent children throughout the state. It was the intention that all

children in the poor-houses should be transferred to the Home, but as the law was not obligatory upon this point, many county officials, through a false economy, still retained the children in the poor-houses. There are now 196 inmates of whom 76 only are soldiers' orphans. There is a central administrative building, with ten brick cottages, each with its family, under the control of a competent christian woman. The schools are thoroughly graded, and under the care of teachers of ability and experience. All children over six years of age attend school 5½ hours a day for nine months in the year.

The per capita cost per month for these various institutions is as follows:

College for the Blind	$20 50
Deaf and Dumb Institute	15 52
Soldiers' Orphans' Home	9 67
Hospital for Insane, at Mt. Pleasant	15 05
Hospital for Insane, at Independence	13 75
Boys' Reform School	8 43
Girls' Reform School	8 45
School for Feeble-Minded	13 22

I am quite unable to give statistics or information in regard to the poor-houses throughout the state; nor can I give any satisfactory account of the work of the local aid societies of our cities, nor yet of the few private charitable institutions which have as yet been able to satisfactorily meet all our necessities in that direction. The state institutions I have refrained from mentioning are our reform schools, of which we are justly proud. As Mrs. Lewelling, the Superintendent of the Girls' Reform School is present, a description of their working is entrusted to much more competent hands.

BY MRS. L. D. LEWELLING.

The boy's department of the Iowa Reform School was opened October 7, 1868, at Eldora. The present number of boys is 218, divided into four families. No high fence, stone wall or prison cells are used to restrain the boys or prevent them escaping. A little more than 600 have been discharged in all, three-fouths of whom are now earning an honest living.

The girl's department is now located at Mitchellville. We have only been two years in our present home, having been on leased property before that. The building was erected for school purposes. We prefer the cottage plan, and shall adopt it for all additional buildings. Since the opening of our school 175 girls have been admitted, and there are now 70 under its care. Each girl attends school four hours a day, and receives four hours instruction a day in some branch of household labor. Many of the girls make rapid progress in school work, and few fall below the average of pupils of the common school. Each

girl takes her turn in each department of household work, serving three months at a time in each, laundry, bake-room, kitchen, and sewing room. Our girls as a result of this discipline, give excellent satisfaction as domestics.

There are plenty of good homes for all, but the trouble is to find girls whom we can recommend for homes which can be recommended. At present there are more applications for girls than the entire number in the school, and if these solicitations for help are sometimes annoying, they are also flattering to the institution.

We try to keep track of the girls after they leave us, and generally are able to do so. When it is possible, we visit them in person; in other cases we write to some friend whom we know; when placed among strangers we keep up a correspondence with the employers, and from these various sources we are able to know with considerable accuracy what the girl is doing. We estimate, from these data, that more than 70 per cent. of all committed to the school have permanently reformed.

We receive girls into our school between the ages of 8 and 16. We urged upon our last legislature to change the law so that girls might be held subject to the restraint of the school until they were twenty-one years old, instead of eighteen, and the law was so amended. Many girls are sixteen when committed, and some of them only wait for the early and positive release which is insured by their maturity, and do not yield to the influences of the school. Eighteen is too critical a time in the life of a young girl to cast her out without home or friends.

The discipline of our school is mild and very few rebel against it. We have in the tower of our building a "chamber of reflection," an airy, pleasant room with three windows, white walls and painted floor, is furnished with a cot, a bright strip of carpet, washstand, bowl and pitcher, one or two pictures and a bible. When a girl becomes unmanagable we conduct her to that chamber and give her to understand that she is not placed there for punishment, but that she may reflect upon her past conduct, and that we cannot have her exert so bad an influence over her mates. It has proved a very effectual discipline, and the girls always come back to their teacher, and much the better for their period of reflection.

A home for fallen women is just being opened in Des Moines. It is under the auspices of the State W. C. T. U. A benevolent lady, a member of the Society of Friends, canvassed our state and secured by subscription $20,000 with which to purchase property for a home for the unfortunate women of our state.

She went before our legislature last winter and urged that an appropriation might be made to establish a woman's prison, to be located on the grounds and in connection with the Girls'

Reform School at Mitchellville. The bill provided that there should be a grading system between the two institutions, so that when a girl in the school became unmanageable she might be transferred to the reformatory prison.

Dr. Byers, Ohio: Have you ever sent a girl home because she was unmanagable?

Ans. No.

Ques. Or for other causes, as ill health?

Ans. Yes. In one case a girl came to the home sick, and we could not keep her, and we wrote to her father and he came and took her home.

Ques. There are different grades of minds; how it it with them?

Ans. We have two girls there now that belong to the feeble-minded home, and we have made application to have them taken there, but they are full. But they will go there in time. We have never had but one case where we thought it necessary to put a girl in prison — that is if we had a prison for her.

REPORT OF INDIANA.

Very Reverend August Bessonies, Indiana: I have no formal report to make. I doubt if anywhere the charitable institutions are carried on more successfully than with us in Indianapolis. We all work together. There are two planks on which we stand, temperance and charity. On these the Protestant minister and the Catholic priest stand side by side always. There is hardly a meeting of our Associated Charities but what I find time to be there.

We have institutions for the blind, the insane, etc., that are second to none in the country, finely kept, and a credit to the state. Besides these, we have in Indianapolis an Associated Charities, and we sustain various institutions — the Home for the Friendless, the Home for Aged People, Home for Bootblacks, a Home for Girls, and hospitals. The people there are always willing to assist when they are called upon to aid some charitable work. When the anniversary comes around for these institutions they always have the largest hall in the city, and

long before the hour of meeting there is no standing room. At the meeting last October I saw a thousand who could not find room.

We are all united together there. When we are short of means at the House of the Good Shepherd for Girls, I call on one of my Protestant friends to come and lecture for me. We labor unitedly for the poor. We watch those who apply for relief, find out who they are and where they are from, and thus prevent to a great extent imposition. The tramps we send to a place where they can get supper, lodging and breakfast, and saw some wood to pay for their entertainment.

We have two large Catholic asylums, one for boys, at Vincennes, and the other for girls. We teach the children to work, so that when they go out from the asylums they are fitted to go almost anywhere into families, and to help themselves at all times. I belong to the Hoosier state, and on the whole I think it will compare favorably with any in the union in regard to charitable institutions.

Invitations to visit the Industrial School for Boys, at Waukesha, and the Industrial School for Girls, at Milwaukee, were received.

SEVENTH SESSION.

WEDNESDAY EVENING, August 9, 1882.

The Committee on Crime and Penalties having the floor for this session, reported two papers, which were read as follows, with the discussion npon them.

CONTROL OF VICIOUS AND CRIMINALLY INCLINED FEMALES.

BY J. L. MILLIGAN, ALLEGHANY, PA.

Any proposition looking toward the increase of the number of prisons, is usually regarded by the public with a degree of distrust. This feeling may or may not arise from the fact that large contracts for labor and material are to be controlled by a few. There is so little actual knowledge possessed and so little inquiry made by the mass of men and women, as to the cause, cure and extent of vice and crime, that it is not remarkable that there should be a hesitancy in the direction of an increase of prisons for the public good. Society is not willing to take trouble about disagreeable conditions and facts, so long as they can be conveniently pushed aside.

The majority feel that the laws already in force seem to have met all the demands, and there is no need to increase legislative action. They are aware that the legal detective furniture and corrective machinery and agencies are at work, and are presumed to be sufficient and efficient for the appointed purpose. Failure is attributed not so much to the paucity of appliances, as to the method of their application. The property owner and tax payer see in the near future an increased rate of taxation if state institutions are increased. The business man under the friction of daily duties, feels that these questions do not concern him specially. The church even may too readily think that there are enough of pious, patient, sympathetic and one idea'd men and women wasting their energies among the delinquent and defective classes and in the houses of compulsory detention, so that an occasional petition from the pulpit, heartily joined in, goes far toward lifting off personal responsibility in these things.

Thus the unsavory problem of crime-cure and its successful solution, is too often relegated to the shades of forgetfulness, or to some more convenient time or more suitable persons.

Complacency in present attainment is not a law of progress. Conservatism has in it much that is good, but its iron grasp may keep back much that is better. Sporadic effort, born of a zeal without knowledge, and fed with a flash of philanthropic flame, will not bring the success for which the true and thoughtful statesman sighs.

The black lines of criminality cannot be blotted out with a paint brush; they dye deeper than the surface. The wounds which vice and crime inflict, affect more than the physical body in the body politic, they are more severe than those under which the Good Samaritan found the "certain man on his way from Jerusalem to Jericho" afflicted with. Their cure demands that they shall be met fairly, and their difficulties encountered and treated manfully, rather than passed by without notice or helpful effort as the manner of the Levite was. It is sad truth that female prisoners both whilst awaiting trial and after conviction in the county jails, have had but little attention directed toward their moral or industrial improvement. The same statement will hold quite largely true in regard to their incarceration in penal establishments of higher grade.

In the work-houses and houses of correction there has been and can be mostly, but little accomplished in the way of classification. The periods of detention being short, they are simply *huddled* and congregated in the various ways that will occasion the least trouble.

In the Massachusetts Prison Commissioners' report of this year, it is stated that even in that progressive commonwealth in things that are wise and good, the collection of the statistics of men and women separately was not begun until December 31, 1879. If this is in the green tree, what of the dry trees? Doubtless few states have any reliable statistics of their female delinquent, vicious and criminal classes. The great state of Ohio, the would-be mother of presidents, does not think it necessary even to mention the fact in her annual state prison report that twenty or twenty-five women are imprisoned there. They seem by some queer bureaucratic transformation to have become men. That state prison reforms many men by its discipline, but how it can change women into men is something wonderful in the line of transformation. Doubtless if the reason were asked, the answer would be that it is found to be more convenient in making up the records, and this will be the answer given from many other states, not so rich and populous as Ohio, where we find but little or no well systematized agencies directed to the care of sentenced and criminally inclined females. It can not be set down as a fact, that because the statistics are omitted, that all appliances of an uplifting character are also neglected, but certainly if great needs were plainly indicated, large efforts would be evoked for their moral

rehabilitation. The same report from Massachusetts quoted above says, we are very glad to note the use both here (i. e., the House of Industry) at Deer Island, and at the House of Correction, at South Boston, of table cloths in the women's department, as we believe that every civilizing influence tends towards their reformation. Now this is not much to say, but it hints at contrasts and practices that may exist, and it has the ring of progress in it. 2d. It is not as hinted, the absence of statistical information that marks the greatest defect in regard to the treatment of female prisoners by our various states. A far greater and deeper injustice is the almost entire want of *separation*. The separation of the sexes in the house of detention is generally attempted. In many places it is fully accomplished in all grades of prisons from the jail upward, or as society may say downward. But this is only local. Few states, if any, have absolute statutes in this regard, and without statutory potency, convenience becomes the custom. The almshouse keeper will say, I have not the time to look into such details; even if the law demanded, there is not room sufficient. The sheriff of the county jail will say about the same, and add that the construction of the building is such that communication cannot be prohibited were I argus eyed and had a hundred hands. Moreover, he will say, what is the difference, there are only few females here, and they will soon be liberated, there is no necessity of so much red tape. He little thinks of the acquaintances that may be formed, and to what ends they may lead.

Doubtless the facts set forth by Dr. Elisha Harris, in regard to "Margaret, the mother of Criminals," have touched many hearts and moved them to earnestness in regard to the separation absolute and unconditional of the criminally inclined. The county records show two hundred of her descendants who have been criminals. In one generation of her unhappy line there were twenty children, of whom seventeen lived to maturity. Nine served terms aggregating fifty years in the state prison, for high crimes, and all the others were frequent inmates of jails and alms-houses. It is said of the six hundred and twenty-three descendants of this outcast girl, two hundred committed crimes which brought them upon the court records, and most of the others were idiots, drunkards, lunatics, paupers or prostitutes. The cost to the county of this race of criminals and paupers is estimated as at least one hundred thousand dollars, taking no account of the damage they inflicted upon property, and the suffering and degradation they caused in others. Who can say that all this loss and wretchedness might not have been spared the community if the beginning of the treatment permitted by the state had been different?

In state prisons that can make any pretentions to architectural construction, separation can be secured. Yet these some-

times become so crowded that absolute non-communication is unattainable. Then the presence of women within the walls of a male prison causes restlessness of both classes. The desire to write letters, or see each other, is constantly asserting itself among some of the heroically vicious ones. The idea that the acquaintance of the outside should be relinquished when in the prison, is resented as tyranny. They boast to each other that they know such and such a man. The spirit of jealousy is started among them. Discipline steps in, punishment ensues. The role of a martyr is then played for all that it will bring. The gallantry of the male acquaintance is touched by the situation. He may feel called upon to speak his mind a little too freely. He is retired for his over-zealous eloquence. His pride comes to his assistance to encourage his resistance to disciplinary efforts. Then the prison friends swell the spirit of discord. They become morose if not recalcitrant. Serious delay to work, and detriment to beneficial control follow in the wake. Twenty men may be stirred to disorder and and mistaken chivalry by the screams of one vixenish woman, caused in the first place by conditions in which she should not have been placed.

3d. In mixed prisons there can be no classification. The chief aim of duress is not simply punishment devoid of any ameliorating tendencies. This practice has had its full swing in the past. Failure has marked its track in history. That dark period has given place to the dawning of a better day. The scepter, instead of ruling to ruin and exterminate, is extended now to rule and if possible reform. This brighter element of moral rehabilitation necessarily brings with it new methods of control, directed along some well defined lines of intelligent and humane treatment. The effort to discriminate upon the basis of character, crime, age and sex, is gaining a sure foothold. The cry that it is too expensive is sobbing into silence. The appeals of mental and moral science, as also well ordered state-craft, are being heard more patiently. Thought and feeling are being crystalized into action.

England has done much in this direction. Massachusetts, perhaps, takes precedence of all our states in well-directed efforts in this matter. The supervisory and transfer powers are direct and simple, and the probation laws are working good results in the industrial and correctional schools for girls. The attention of other states is being attracted thereto, and progress is on the way. Our large cities are all struggling under burdens of growing evils, which can only be lifted off and corrected by separate, classified and graded industrial schools and reformatory houses, situated outside of their limits, and controlled by a steady, persistent, economical and humane management. The indiscriminate *sentencing* of young girls to houses of refuge is detrimental oftentimes. The mere fact of the sentence decreeing that so much time must be served for such and such an

offense, leaves an ineradicable trace of harm personally, but the judge has no discretion. The case is before him in a criminal form; he may desire to dispose of the case as his better judgment dictates without the odium of a sentence, but there is no alternative. There is no home of an industrial character to which she can go, without fixing upon the mind the sting of a magisterial sentence. The offense may have been very trivial, one for which her environment more than her will power was responsible. Heredity and bad training stand foster parents to much of the viciousness of young girls, which eventually ranges them in the ranks of crime. The limited responsibility of the first offence should be met with a charitable and wholesome educational and disciplinary effort, without the stigma of a sentence pronounced from the same bench before which the experienced and adult criminal is arraigned. The first classification should have no time sentences, and separated from a locality that detains any sentenced by a court or a magistrate. The power of placing under this classification could be wisely deputed to an agent of the Board of State Charities. The privilege to release entirely from institutional surveilance, return to guardians or friends, or to transfer to a school of more restrictive character, could also safely be accorded to the same central authority. The unfortunate would thus be treated with charity, and those vicious from heredity or evil associations would be gnarded with a care at once kind and just.

A home thus created by municipal funds, and aided from the state treasury, would close up many avenues of moral danger to the waifs of the street and the factory. Habits of industry, skillful accomplishments for honest support, and educational and moral endowments could thus be quietly made to supplant the lessons of the dance house and the saloon.

The second classification necessarily takes upon itself a more rigid regime. Its name of Reformatory Home would indicate its character as having to deal with those whom the training and care, and the milder provisions of the Industrial School for Children failed to secure from the ranks of vagrancy and vice. To it their transfer could be made without the stern necessity of a sentence. Its disciplinary regime and advantages would necessarily be along the same lines with the former, with an additional element of heroic treatment, both as to the length and character of the treatment.

The third classification would naturally be the Reformatory Prison for Women. Two of our states have taken this step, Massachusetts at Sherburne and Indiana at Indianapolis, have given this country and the continent of Europe an example in their institutions of this name that will be productive of much good. They have already accomplished much for their respective states. The beneficial effects are not to be reckoned in dollars and cents; their results lie along a higher plane. Their

purposes are benign, cultivating and reforming. Their inmates are removed from the miasma of jail life; the work-house taint is not found there; the dark stigma of the penitentiary is not branded upon them. Still they are prisoners; dark cells and repressive agencies are found there, and sometimes brought into requisition. The stickler for punitive agencies cannot complain that they do not exist within these walls. The sentimentalist and the over-zealous, inexperienced prison humanitarian may shudder at the thought. Moral suasion, pure and simple, where there is an absence of well balanced judgment or enlightened conscience, or habits of self-control, will not always avail to secure order, obedience, industry and thoughtfulness. Deprivation of privileges and retrogression in grade, are strong appealing forces to most persons. Yet it is sad to know from experience that some natures and temperaments are such as to not remain sufficiently rebuked thereby. The first start toward reformation is sometimes made through repressive physical restraints.

There is one feature in these reformatory prisons for women, which appears to be unwise, and that is they seem to be compelled under their present provisions to receive children. It would be more in accord with their name and purpose if their practice accorded with their legal name. But it is not the desire of the reporter to find fault with what is so easily corrected, and what may be so guarded as to produce no flagrant evils, where there is so much that is most commendable in purpose, principle, philanthropy and practice. They ought not to be compelled by the states that have shown so much forecast as to erect them and equip them, to take the place of the Industrial Home or the Reformatory Home for Girls. These institutions are intended to fill a special want and place in the humane corrective agencies of great states, and they should not be trammelled with burdens which belong to other classifications. The complaint, that without these children they are too expensive, will yield when time is given for the recognition of their faithful work and beneficient results. In all the other states of our great country, we find the work committed to the county jail or city work-house, penitentiary or state prison in which men are detained in idleness, or sentenced to labor. Certainly an advance is accomplished already in the active provisions of these two institutions worthy the consideration of this conference.

The basis of the treatment, helpful and hopeful, for delinquent, vicious and criminal females is that which brings into steady judicious play the methods in nearest aliance with honest and pure home life. Girls and women should be trained to adorn homes with the virtues which make their lives noble and enobling. It is only in this province, that they may most fittingly fill their mission, and the city or the state that most suc-

cessfully secures this consummation, brings wealth, prosperity and purity within its borders most abundantly.

4th. As to the management of these proposed advances in state policy, to whose hands should they be most implicitly committed? There has been, there is now, and perhaps in some states will continue to be some hesitancy and difference in the answer to this inquiry.

All officials and law makers are not willing to say: Yes, certainly, place them all absolutely and unreservedly under the control of the sex to be controlled. Let the boards of directors, the superintendent, and the officers of every grade be women.

The probabilities are that the committee from which this report emanates would not all vote in the affirmative of this question. In speaking of this matter not many weeks ago, a prominent member of this conference from Ohio said to the writer, "I am not exactly settled about this matter of female directors in such institutions. There is something about the presence of a man that a woman good or bad always respects and fears." This is no doubt true, at the same time, may it not be only a subtle excuse for an unwillingness to yield an authority into hands that have been unused to holding a sceptre outside the domain of the private family?

Another man says, why, women cannot manage the money matters of a public institution! The answer to this might be made that they have not been tried in this role to any great extent. Large female seminaries of learning could be mentioned however in which the superintendents know how to take care of the funds.

Another man says that women do not know how to treat their own sex, they are always suspicious, harsh and unkind toward each other. This is a general condemnatory statement, and does not fit down very tightly upon the subject in hand. Things which may or may not be true in relations of social equality, take on a different aspect, when the relation is an official one, and that not for a pecuniary reward, but for the good that may be accomplished therein.

Female physicians for females are magnifying their office. In the female wards of insane asylums and city hospitals they are securing favor and increased consideration.

These provinces, in accordance with an innate delicacy, seem justly their own. Their ability to heal the physical ailments of their sex will not be denied if the facts are presented from those public institutions in which they have been employed. If then their record of success is good in the line of medical practice for their sex, would it not furnish presumptive evidence in favor of their being granted a free field and a fair trial in the control of institutions designed to correct and cure the moral deformities of their sex?

Mrs. Coffin, of Indiana, says: "Our Female Prison has been

a grand success in every way. We experienced no difficulty but what we were able to overcome with far greater ease than could have been done, had the management been in the hands of men." It has been the universal testimony of the governor and state officers, as well as the examining committee appointed by the legislature, that this prison is well managed.

Further she says, there is every reason why female prisoners should be under the control of women. Both common sense and reason teach this. They alone can meet the wants, understand the susceptibilities, temptations, weaknesses and the peculiar difficulties by which such persons are surrounded. Her letter closes by saying, there is an untold amount of latent talent in the good women of this nation which should be employed in the care of thier own sex.

Governor Porter in a speech last May said: "To-day I visited one of our reformatory institutions, an institution the trustees and officers of which are women, and I cannot but say that there is no institution, penal, reformatory or benevolent, whose affairs are better administered or conducted with more economy than the reformatory for females in this state."

Mrs. Sarah J. Smith, the present superindent, says: Our object is not to make money. Our foundation principles are derived from the gospel. We have few rules, but these are rigidly enforced. Disobedience is punished with deprivation of privileges, and if the offence is flagrant the offender is locked in a warm, lighted cell, until she is willing to acknowledge her fault in the presence of the other prisoners, and any one alluding to the fault afterwards receives the same punishment. Our labor is sewing, laundry and house work. We have great reason to take courage."

The Hon. Richard Vaux, of Philadelphia, a phrenologist well known in our own country and abroad says: "You are considering a reformatory for females. It is a vastly important question. It is full of points that need thorough investigation. The sex has first to be considered and the peculiarities of the female. Men are excluded from all these considerations. It is the female with her capacities and functions and their purpose, development, trials and temptations. Crime in a female comes often from the abnormal development of her functions, their use, abuse and the effect on the moral constitution thus produced. The female is receptive and active, and crimes in her are from causes that never operate on the male. To punish a female requires very different treatment than the punishment of men. Regular employment, bathing, pure air, pleasant, instructive, elevating teachings, especially attractive surroundings — the most carefully considered classification, and the smallest number possible in these classes. The location should be as far as possible from a city.

A *reformatory* for *women* is an unknown institution, herea-

bouts. There is none, for as yet what a reformatory should be is not understood. Home! a home is the place for the woman; there she belongs exclusively. Then make a reformatory like a home, educate her to that standard, and it is possible to train her *for a home*, in a home."

Dr. Byers of Ohio, writes: "We have no reformatory for women, because so little is known of the necessities, and public sentiment moves very slowly in this direction. Our prison population of women for the year would approximate in state prison, work-houses and jails, not less than 800. Society will learn pretty soon, that for its own protection, reformatories for women will have to be supplied. Public health will demand it whether we regard public morals or not."

Opinions of other experienced and thoughtful specialists could be added, tending in the same direction; but enough has been said to this intelligent body on this subject, the importance of which they are all well aware.

FRED H. WINES: I see here to-night Mr. Brockway, Superintendent of the Reformatory at Elmira, New York, formerly Superintendent of the Detroit House of Correction. He is regarded as one of the best informed men on this subject, and the most advanced and practical thinker on prison questions in the United States to-day, and I should feel disappointed, as I believe this Conference would, if the sessions should pass by without hearing from him on these questions.

Z. R. BROCKWAY, New York: I would first prefer to hear Col. Burchard's paper. As a member of the committee I would endorse most all that has been said by Mr. Milligan. I am heartily and squarely in favor of separate prisons for women, to be under the control of women, and in the main for the reasons stated in the paper, though not for all of them. I was familiar with the inception and construction of the Indiana prison. I consider the Massachusetts Woman's Prison a grand success, and if we could find such a superintendent as Dr. Moshier I have no doubt but that the legislature of almost any state, on knowing such ability could be secured, would proceed to erect a prison for women, where there were women enough of that class to make it an object at all. I think there is one error that often comes into the minds of people when thinking about male and female prisons. They all belong to the human race; there

is not so much difference among them after all. What is good for one is good for the other, is the rule. I must protest, not against the language of the paper, but against a very common sentiment that there is some sort of a morbid influence that makes a woman criminal and hinders her reformation that does not belong to men. I think it would be a good idea if we could get out of our minds this whole idea of sex; it is often a hindrance to the whole work of reformation. The House of Shelter, at Detroit, came as an experiment in this direction, and there is nothing left of it now at all.

Very interesting things come out of these experiments, and if I had more time I should be glad to tell you about them. All preconceived theories of the people are often found to be at fault when we come to practical work. I remember an illustration; two inmates of an institution, one nearly grown, a large girl, was moved over to the prison family of the establishment, then under the charge of one of the loveliest and best women in the world, and to-day at the head of the Woman's Reform school in Michigan. She entered on that family life; she would lead in the family devotions, and gained the confidence of those in charge, and of the patrons. She was finally placed in a New England home near Boston, where she was to be adopted and educated. We believed her saved. Three months after she was sent there the matron, while riding, saw her drunk, bedizzened and bedecked, and in a condition that denoted that she had all gone to destruction. Another case: a miserable, ignorant girl, from one of the lowest families, was arrested among low associates. She was taken there the third time, and was considered incorrigible; but we have information that she is reformed, living in another part of the country, is the mother of a family and is respected in society. So I think sometimes what is the use of standing here and theorizing about methods of correction and reformation for women.

F. B. SANBORN, Massachusetts: I want to correct Mr. Milligan concerning the collection of statistics going no further back than 1879, though they were not as full and complete as the information now obtained. In 1863, when the State

Board of Charities had no inspection, I prepared official questions which with slight variations have been asked ever since. I framed these questions so as to meet different sections, and I think I published the first table showing the proportion of crime among women and children as compared with its commission among men. These were not very full as compared with the later reports, but they served to point out some rather curious facts at that time. I began these inquiries during the last year of the war, 1864, and I found it to be a fact that whenever war exists and crimes among men and women are noted, that crime among women is very much increased. When the men are gone to war they are not able to commit their accustomed crimes, and the women seem to step into the gap and commit the crimes themselves, though some of the crimes are of a somewhat different character; that where crime among men falls off, as during war, crime among women is apt to increase and continue until the war is ended, and if they come back home for a short time crime among the women is decreased; but the increase or decrease in crime among women in a community densely populated like New York or Massachusetts, is not so much noticed as the statistics show it. The crimes which are punished among women are a comparatively small part of the crimes that might be punished. Offenses in men which would be punished by the courts are passed over when committed by women.

FRED H. WINES, Illinois: Perhaps it may be explained that a woman who wants a crime committed can always get a man to commit the crime for her.

I would like to say a word in regard to the woman's prison at Sherburne, that I think it quite deserves all the encomiums passed on it last year, and that which Mr. Brockway has just mentioned. It is the first prison that I have ever seen in Massachusetts that has seriously attempted to adapt its discipline to the different circumstances and classes they had to deal with. I state what I regard as the most important step in Massachusetts in twenty years. Dr. Moshier, the present superintendent, I think originated it, at any rate it was originated by a woman.

She observed that as new convicts were brought to the prison, they brought with them news and perhaps messages from their old companions outside, which would be disseminated with bad effects among the inmates; it kept up in a sense their relations and interest with their former life and associates, and made their reformation more difficult to accomplish; so the authorities determined to keep all new prisoners separate from the other inmates for a month after their arrival there, and so it is an essential part of their discipline that no woman coming in there is allowed to exchange so much as a word with the others in the prison for thirty days. This is valuable in several respects, but it is an ingenious device for cutting off all outside information to the inmates; and at the end of a month any information that a new acquisition might communicate is old and useless. Another important part of this plan is that during this period of entire separation she is only with the prison officers, or those who have the good of the prisoners at heart. I believe that step was never taken in Massachusetts until for the women at Sherburne.

P. CALDWELL, Kentucky: Do I understand they are not allowed to see anybody aside from their attendants during the month of their seclusion?

Ans. They are not allowed to see anybody — they are not allowed to go out of the room only when they will not see the other prisoners; and then they are not allowed to mingle indiscriminately.

MRS. JOHN L. BEVERIDGE, Illinois: Though not definitely connected with prison work, I think I can speak from my observations of the last ten years, during which time I have visited several prisons and reformatories, and have spent weeks, perhaps, in the prison at Joliet, the largest in the state. One remark has often been made, of the comparative smallness in number of the women in prisons in Illinois and other states. I think this arises from two causes; first, lack of accommodations. Many who would otherwise be sent to the penitentiary, are sent to the jails, or the bridewell in Cook county. With this exception I think the crimes of men and of women are punished

about equally, I think women are convicted of manslaughter, murder, arson, etc. In one thing relating to the punishment of women, there is a difference against them. For the last few years the women's ward in Joliet has been anything but complimentary to the management of the prison. And I noticed another thing — that while the men are led from their cells twice a day across the yard and get a little taste of sunlight and air and on Sunday to chapel, the women never go from theirs in a month. This difference in their employment is marked. Men are employed in trades in which they are interested, but the women, if they are under excellent management, are employed to do the rough work for the men, the washing, mending, repairing of the convicts' clothes, and I think there is nothing very reformatory or interesting in that.

It has been a subject very near my heart to establish in our state a system of female prisons, separate from the men's prisons. I visited Sherburne last year, and I know something of the workings of women's wards in other prisons. I have an interest in this matter from my connection with the Industrial School for Girls, and there are many topics I would like to hear discussed, and learn from the experience of others. Several have told me that where there was a case of committing larceny, or murder or manslaughter, they would let them slide. I cannot agree with that. I think there are as many women as men who need reformation.

Fred A. Wines, Illinois: About letting them slide. I knew of a case in the circuit court where a woman was convicted and sentenced, and the judge remitted it on the ground that the jail was not a fit place to confine a woman.

I want to say a word here that may hurt the feelings of our Kentucky friends. We shall go to Kentucky next year I think. Before we go down there I want to state what I know in reference to our Kentucky prison to illustrate what seems to me to be the kind of reform needed. I went down there some two years ago, and to my great disgust, and I blushed as an American citizen, I found all the female prisoners dressed in the garb of striped clothing such as was worn by the male prisoners,

without one single particle of difference, in pantaloons, and with not even an apron, and I saw these women at work where they were making rope, breaking hemp or something of that kind, along with the male convicts, and in the female yard there was a well where the male convicts came to get water. It illustrated one phase of the management of the female prisoners that ought to be remedied.

Rev. Father Bess-nies, Indiana: I don't believe in that kind of men who would be willing to give the female prisoners into the care of males.

P. Caldwell, Kentucky: I am not here to defend the Kentucky penitentiary, but I would say that that was abolished two years ago. I visited the legislature while it was in session, and there has not been one white woman in the penitentiary.

Ques. Have there been any colored women there?

Ans. Yes.

Ques. Are they still dressed in male attire?

Ans. No, they just do the work of the prison, the hemp work is abolished entirely.

INDETERMINATE SENTENCES A NECESSITY.

By Geo. W. Burchard, President of the State Board of Supervision of Wisconsin Charitable, Reformatory and Penal Institutions.

Wherever any person is deprived of liberty, by process of law, upon conviction of crime, and required to submit to the will of another, there is

A PRISON;

and by whatsoever name we call it, whether penitentiary, reformatory, house of correction or industrial school, it exists, of right, for the sole and only purpose of protecting society, and not at all primarily, for either the punishment or reformation of offenders. There is punishment and there is reformation, but these are, or should be, only incidents to the end — aids in securing protection from crime.

For the purposes of this paper, then, I do not discriminate between the different kinds of prisons, but assume that every reformatory is a prison, and that every prison ought to be a reformatory. Indeed, if this branch of the general subject of

had been assigned to me for discussion, I should argue for the total abolition of the present system of prison nomenclature, and, instead of sentencing convicts to confinement in specific places with specific names, advocate committing them simply to the custody of the prison managers, with authority to confine them wherever the least harm and most good would accrue, and to change the place and character of confinement from time to time, as circumstances might seem to require. This, of course, would necessitate placing all the prisons of a state under one management or supervision; but, from the Wisconsin standpoint, that would not be an objectionable feature in the administration of state institutions.

The present inquiry, however, tends in a different direction, and may be thus formulated:

Given a prison, and who shall fix the day of discharge and what shall determine the period of confinement?

In Wisconsin we have seventy-five judges, more or less, who are authorized to sentence convicts to our state prison. As men and as officers they will compare not unfavorably with the judges in other states; but the mere circumstance that sentence is pronounced by one or another judge — or by the same judge on different days, or in different states of health — may make a term long or short. So also the circumstances, as to whether the information which comes to the judge concerning the prisoner's antecedents, is correct or incorrect, and how much of the one kind has been suppressed, and of the other manufactured, complicate the problem and render its solution uncertain. Your professional criminal understands these points quite as well as anybody, and not infrequently selects his judge with adroitness and works him with success, thereby bringing the administration of public justice into ill repute.

WHAT ARE THE FACTS?

Of the three hundred and six convicts in the Wisconsin state prison, who are there for terms less than life, forty-eight are known to have served one or more previous terms in that or some other prison, and more than that number may be properly classed as professional criminals; and yet, with a single exception, these men received lighter sentences than the average awarded for the crimes of which they were convicted.

Take the crime of burglary for example, for which, in its different forms, we have ninety-nine convicts in prison, with an average term of three and one-third years. Among the number are two men from Richland county, jointly convicted for the same act and sentenced each for two years. So far this reads and sounds well, and doubtless it appeared to the prosecuting

attorney and presiding judge very like even and exact justice; but when these men arrived at the prison the light of some

ACCUMULATED EXPERIENCE

was thrown upon the cases, and then the mistake became apparent. One of these men was within prison walls for the first time, but the other had already served two terms with us from other counties. Another case comes from Dunn county, for two and one-half years, and his record is: one term at Stillwater, Minn., one at Fort Madison, Iowa, and one previous term with us at Waupun. This man, as I need not say, is a professional crook, and at one time was connected with the notorious Williams brothers. Still another case comes from Waupaca county, with a certificate from the court that in one year, which he can make in eleven months, he will be fit for liberty, notwithstanding the fact, probably not known to the court, that this was his third conviction, in this state, for the same offense. And that Waupaca county might not be exceptionally distinguished in this direction, in less than four weeks thereafter Rock county sends up a third-termer, also for one year.

Cases of this kind are not confined to convictions and sentences for burglary. In forgery we have one man sent up for two years for disposing of a false note of thirty dollars, his first offense, while two others, who negotiated a forged draft for $1,650, get off with one year each — one of them certainly, and both of them probably, old offenders.

SIMILAR TRAVESTIES UPON JUSTICE,

and equally improvident attempts to protect society, appear all too frequently in sentences for other crimes. They may be found, also, in other states, as well as in Wisconsin, because being inherent in the system they are inevitable. It is not a question of the ordinary fallibility of human judgment. It is the impossibility of bringing out at the trial the facts which will show the prisoner's previous history and habits, and the impracticability of requiring the judge, then and there, without time or opportunity for proper study, reflection or comparison, to pronounce sentence,

FOR BETTER OR FOR WORSE,

with no power of amendment, and without reference to future conduct.

Such a system, indefensible in theory and unsatisfactory in practice, ought to be buried in the tomb of history, beside its progenitor, fruitful parent of many evils, the doctrine of the divine right of kings.

Society, that is, the state, may interfere with the individual, not for his good, but solely for its protection. The limitations

and suggestions here sought to be indicated are generic, and, if founded in reason, must not be discarded, even though they lead ultimately to radical changes in criminal law and its administration.

All authorities agree that the

ESSENCE OF CRIME

is the intent which accompanies the deed. It would be the very acme of nonsense to claim that the disposition to be made whether in time, or eternity, of the late assassin of the president (he should evermore be nameless) could in any degree properly depend upon the recovery, or death, of his illustrious victim. So in any case of deadly assault, the circumstance that death does not ensue within a year and a day is of much less importance in determining what to do with the assailant than is a careful study of his antecedent habits and character. The question is, how most effectually, without trenching upon the rights of the criminal, may governments secure to us the rights of life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. If this cannot be done and preserve the culprit's life, then, and only then, is capital punishment justifiable. But we may not hang a man, because, forsooth, of fear that some other man (a governor, for instance) will do less or more than his duty.

Truly the essence of crime is the intent which accompanies the deed, but its

QUINTESSENCE

is the antecedent disposition and character which lead up to the intent, and make it possible for that to develop and reproduce itself. Eradicate this disposition and remold this character, and there is accomplished every useful purpose which imprisonment can serve. Discharge a prisoner before this change takes place and society will be more in jeopardy from him than ever before. Hold him in confinement after reasonable assurance that he may be at large without prejudice to the lives, persons or property of his fellow men, upon any theory that he has not paid the penalty of his guilt, or fully expiated his offense, and you usurp the

PREROGATIVES OF PROVIDENCE,

who has said: I will repay. And well said, too! For, indeed, nothing short of infinite wisdom can properly apportion pains and penalties to offenses. Let us, then, professing to be reasonable beings, justify that profession, and for once and for all leave the business of punishment, as such, to God, where it properly belongs; and instead of vainly inquiring what and how much punishment is adequate for the infinite variety of crimes, in their ever-varying degrees of turpitude, let us devote our-

selves to the more practicable, and, to us, far more important subject of self protection, that is, protection to society.

I know that much importance is assigned to the assumed

DETERRENT INFLUENCE

and example of punishment, but I also know that practical observers have signally failed to discover any considerable effects thus produced. On the contrary, it is a matter of every day experience, for those who come in contact with criminals, to learn that every person about to commit a crime, if he reflects at all, calculates to escape detection, or, failing that, is not without hope that the jury, or the judge, or the supreme court, or the governor, will open up an avenue of escape for him. And then, too, modern prison discipline and fare are tolerable, as they should be, and, if the worst should happen, short terms in prison are accepted by the craft as among the occasional accidents of their trade, uncomfortable to be sure, but not at all unendurable or disabling.

Considered only as deterrent punishment, the principle of

INDETERMINATE SENTENCES

for all kinds of crimes and all classes of criminals will secure to the state adopting it, and adhering to it, the largest measure of security against crime and criminals of every degree. The unknown and the uncertain have much more terror for men, as well as children, than the known and the certain. A burglar may be willing to take the chances of being sent up for five years, but a possible fifteen or twenty years, with a certainty that all his previous misdeeds will be brought to light and count against him, will tend to make him cautious and to direct his attention to more congenial fields.

Prisons are for the

PROTECTION OF SOCIETY.

Whatsoever, therefore, in criminal law, or prison discipline, goes beyond, or falls short of, affording this protection is as unjustifiable as unwise. Whenever any person will live and remain at liberty without prejudice to the welfare of his fellow men, then he is entitled to release, and, what is quite as important, not till then. It is a mockery of justice and a confession of the inutility of the present system to be sending so many men and women to prison for third, fourth and fifth terms.

What a record is this for Wisconsin:

"There is a character in the prison who has spent more than the average time behind the bars. He has been imprisoned as follows: in jails, 6 years; two terms in Michigan prison, 6 years; one term at Jefferson City, Mo., 1 year; one term at Joliet, Ill., 1½ years, and is now on his fifth term

in the Wisconsin prison. He is now fifty-four years old, and when his present term is concluded, which will be in about three years, he will have spent 33½ years of his life in prison."

And this for Pennsylvania:

"There has recently died in the eastern penitentiary of Pennsylvania the German who, being imprisoned there at the time of Dickens' visit to that institution, in 1842, is most vividly and pathetically described in his American Notes. 'The taste and ingenuity he had displayed,' in ornamenting his cell and cultivating the few feet of ground connected with it, says Dickens, 'were most extraordinary; and yet, a more dejected, broken-hearted, wretched creature it would be difficult to imagine. I never saw such a picture of forlorn affliction and distress of mind.' At the time of his death this prisoner was serving his fifth term in that institution, and meanwhile had also served two terms in other prisons, giving him all told a prison experience of 35 years."

Suppose ye that these states are sinners above all the states because they suffer such things? Not at all. The next item of this class which comes to the surface in the newspapers may be from New York or Massachusetts. Such cases may be found anywhere and everywhere,— in families, schools, or states,— whenever and wherever the doctrine of retributive punishment prevails.

Prisons are for the protection of society. There should be

FEWER FINES

and fewer short terms in jails, houses of correction, and prisons for a large class of pregnant crimes, such as vagabondage, drunkenness and prostitution. That others may be to blame does not exculpate the persons addicted to these crimes, nor give them license to prey upon society. Our sympathies may go out to them and for them, but never at the expense of the public welfare. With them, as with others, the rule should be, once in prison let them stay there, not for a definite period, but for a definite purpose, let it take ten years or twenty.

Given a prison therefore, and the period of confinement therein in any case should be determined by putting under contribution the authentic history of the prisoner's previous life, all the facts and circumstances of his crime, and the record of his conduct from the day of incarceration to the hour of discharge; and those who have had the best opportunities to study and to know the prisoner, and are best informed as to the peculiarities and idiosyncracies of the criminal classes, should from these data fix the day of discharge.

It is not possible to announce an acceptable

UNIVERSAL FORMULA;

nevertheless, it has seemed quite proper to attempt to place the prison question upon high and tenable grounds, by eliminating from it every element of possible vindictiveness and proselyt-

ism. Yet would I avoid all merely verbal disputes. If there be some who prefer to say that to punish the guilty is the most effective way to insure protection from crime; and others who hold that the reformatory road is the most direct route to individual and public safety, I beg of them not to pronounce against indeterminate sentences because, perhance, they cannot assent to every phrase of mine. Rather let them consider whether indeterminate sentences, with conditional discharge and authority to re-imprison if good habits are not maintained, do not offer the most feasible means whether for insuring proper punishment, or stimulating reformation. If there be those who fear that prison officers and managers would become the dupes of hypocrites and be exposed to the danger of having sympathy dominate reason in the matter of the retention or discharge of criminals, I ask them to consider the practical workings of the present system and candidly answer whether hypocrites do not now impose upon judges, or whether sometimes public sympathy and sometimes public vengeance may not be found in criminal judgments. So also, if there be those who question the propriety of supervising discharged convicts and following them into private life, to guide, admonish and protect, as well as in case of necessity, to re-imprison, and look upon it as unwarrantable official espionage, let them reflect and inquire whether this class of people do not in fact quite as much need to be protected from the unwise and unreasonable opposition and prejudices of society, as society needs protection from them; and whether they cannot recall more than one case where, in all human probability, a little kindly help or an official admonition would have averted a fatal relapse into criminal habits.

There is no process of reasoning, with which I am acquainted, that can explain or excuse the

INCONGRUITIES AND INCONSISTENCIES

which appear whenever we study prison records. Omitting all discussions of the folly of turning loose upon society the confirmed criminal, whose notions of right and wrong and whose respect for law run parallel with those of an enraged and starving lion, how is it with those prisoners, who, having eyes to see and ears to hear, have learned that they have been kept in confinement one, two, or more years longer than others convicted of similar crimes, accompanied by more aggravated circumstances? These go out firmly convinced that the state has done them a grievous wrong; that under the forms of law it has unjustly taken from them, for varying periods, their liberty and meantime subjected them, without reason, to prison fare, prison discipline and prison toil. And there is no legal redress, no satisfactory explanation that can be offered, no lawful way of getting even with the world. Put yourself in his place; imagine what

influence such convictions and such situations would have upon you; and you can forecast the future of this class of discharged prisoners. Thistles do not produce figs, nor thorns, grapes.

Certainly,

PERFECTION IS NOT ATTAINABLE

under any system. Mistakes are inevitable. But with indeterminate sentences and conditional discharges, regulated by prison managers, the margin for mistakes will be reduced to the minimum, and the egregious blunders which now disfigure the records of our courts and prisons appear no more forever. While there would be not many terms of less than two years and the average of all terms would be, as it ought to be, much increased, yet, withal, would these terms be so apportioned as to command the respect, if not in all cases the approval, of prisoners and public alike.

Prisons are for the protection of society, and every consideration, whether of prudence, economy, safety, or justice, requires that sentences thereto should be wholly indeterminate.

Z. R. Brockway, New York: I heartily wish I had written the paper read by Col. Burchard myself, and you will allow me to express my great gratification at hearing it, and the reason for it. In 1870 I had the honor of bringing out this idea at Cincinnati more prominently than ever before, and on two or three occasions since that time I have had the privilege of presenting papers on the subject to the legislature; and to come here to-night and hear this able report approving of it, and which has been received with such frequent applause, is something for which I am very thankful.

I like the opening and the closing, the *alpha* and *omega* of that paper. Let us come down from our high horse of theories and speculations, and put this work before us clearly and distinctly, excluding every other thought, and consider that of protection from criminals. Every other thing is included in that. We need think of nothing else, and if we proceed on that line it will be with the very best of results. We want protection. I noticed the newspaper reports of the remarks of Governor Fairchild, that on his return from England he was impressed with the need of better care and instruction of criminals. Also, Governor Rusk said with some gratification, that

Wisconsin had made some efforts to teach the prisoners in the prisons the error of their ways. If they are like the prisons in the east they can't see it yet.

There is a need of protection for society. I took up the report of the state of New York containing the discharges from the state prisons last year, and from three prisons of New York there were about four felons discharged for every working day in the year. I suppose that in other states the proportion is nearly the same; but after making some allowance for the great city of New York, outside of which there must be about the same proportion of released criminals to mingle with society, that would make in New York about 1,200 a year. Supposing these were distributed through fifty counties, how many would that be to a county? Twenty-four to the county. Supposing, for instance, it were flashed over the wires to-night that some government in Europe had sent twenty-four felons to every county, or even but two, from the prisons of Europe, for every working day in the year, and for every year. Would we not be alarmed? Would not congress be asked to fortify our coasts to keep them away? But we are doing something like that all the time.

With these indeterminate sentences we can send them out with the probability that they will live without breaking the law. We have also a conditional release, which may delay an absolute release for a considerable time. It is the practice with us at the New York Reformatory to give a conditional release, and hold control over discharged persons and bring them in again if necessary.

I want to say a few words more on the relation of indeterminate sentences to reformatory prisons. When we first advocated this, they said: If you send men to prison on indeterminate sentences you will have to build new prisons, great ones, and it will cost too much, and no legislature will be willing to make the necessary appropriations. Another practical difficulty we have found has been a want of motive on the part of men to fall in with our plans and measures for their improvement, and adopt them. There has been no marked difference in the

prisons. They are the same that had been in use for thirty years up to the time the new system was adopted at Elmira.

Under the old system we felt as though we were weighted and burdened with a heavy load, and failed to accomplish much. Under the new system we have a very different state of things, and I feel the difference every day. It is like the difference between driving along a heavy road with an ox team and prodding them at every step, making slow progress, and driving over a smooth track a spirited team of thoroughbreds. We have the thoroughbreds in hand just now. The power of motive can be illustrated in a great many ways. Take our three grades: the 3d the lowest, the 2d the intermediate one, and the 1st the highest, or probationary, or preparatory to being released. In the third grade there are not many. There are no punishments except in the third grade, and there is not more than ten per cent. that need what is commonly known as prison punishment. This illustrates at once the power of some motive that has hitherto been lacking in prisons. Under the old system every prisoner has a period of solitary confinement. We adopt the other plan. On the indeterminate plan, when they are received they wear citizen's clothes. It remains with each prisoner to fall or rise. He can rise; if he falls he can rise again. From the intermediate they seldom go into the the third class; they go from the second up and out. If a man falls into the third, or convict grade, he can get out of that again, but not so soon; or when guilty of larceny or something akin to that, that keeps him in a longer time. It takes six months to get from the second to the first, and then he must remain six months in that, or the probationary grade; and then when the question of his release comes before the managers there are three conditions on which any man can secure a release: 1st, that he must have remained there twelve months; 2d, that he has fulfilled the laws and requirements of the institution; 3d, that he must be provided with some legitimate occupation by which he can reasonably be expected to make a living during the remainder of his life. We always correspond with an employer before a prisoner is released, who understands all about him, and we send him out

with a proper outfit, as though it had come from father and mother, and they most all reach their destination.

I would like to say in regard to this power of moulding men in any direction we please, that during the last winter we had a class of young men come from New York who were much more mischievous than any young men in college, and who were also malicious. There were 500 in the school. The manager of the east wing came over one night, saying the devil was to pay, that the lights were all out and it was dark as a stack of black cats. I went over into the east wing and saw that the gas was lighted again. I went around, and was told by the officers in charge that there had not been the slightest noise or a word spoken by any one except one man, who imagining I would come, had told them in stentorian tones to "shut up."

Another illustration: During the last winter we had a committee of investigation from the state legislature. It was a put up job. During the presence of this committee of examination, there were thirty or forty, or fifty men in the foundry who thought it would be a good time to force the tobacco rations, and for the first time we had a little insurrection. Some thirty of the men refused to work unless they had tobacco. One of the committee said to them in going about: "Don't you have tobacco?" "No." "Well, if I wanted it I would have it, or raise the greatest row." It did not take long for this to have its effect. A number refused to work. I tried an experiment. The patrol of the galleries are faithful men. We had them retire to their places, so that in twenty minutes they can communicate with each one of them. We let these men go over Saturday and Sunday and Sunday night, to see whether we would have any workers or not after they had time for reflection. On Monday morning it had reached only forty-one men. We appointed a place for consultation, and sent for one at a time and talked with them, and all but seven went to work; the seven I was obliged to coerce. This is an illustration of the power of motive as it pervades the whole establishment, and by placing before them a motive to influence them we avoided what might have been an insurrection of great magnitude, with

all the bad results of greatly diminished labor and school progress.

We have in connection with the institution an evening school. We use the stimulus of the marking system. We have an examination once a month, and if a man fails in that he loses a month, perhaps more. We have a school three evenings a week, and taking a term of the same number of months, I think it is a fair statement to say we make about three times the progress in the same studies. The teachers are all college graduates. In the summer, while the weather is too hot for the evening schools, we have a course of lectures, one each week to each of the three divisions of the school; to the higher grade on business laws; to the intermediate on general history; to the lower grade in writing and on business forms. The whole 500 inmates are divided — about 220 in the lower grade, about 150 in the intermediate grade, and about 130 in the upper grade. About one-third of the men in the upper grade have been through Nordhoff's Political Economy and Arithmetic, and many of them through Algebra and into Plane Geometry; and last winter we took Haven's Moral Philosophy, strange as it may seem. (Applause and laughter.) Let me here say there is more moral instruction in one lesson from Haven's or any other good moral philosophy, given by a teacher not a preacher, as a lesson in which men must be examined, than in any number of ordinary sermons from an ordinary $600 chaplain.

But enough about that. We have about 525 young fellows turned over to us from the city of New York, and we are charged with the duty of sending them out to be citizens; and that is what reform means with us; simply taking a bad citizen and making a good citizen out of him, and have him provided with this ennobling, power-giving and elevating motive. How can it be done? Skill comes in as a director. The direction in which we push a man will be determined by the defects of character to be corrected. A large per cent. of our men come to us with no idea of causation. There is in the minds of a vast number of criminals no connection between the cause of anything and the consequence of it. Another difficulty we have

to contend with is that a large proportion of them have no abiding place at all. Another is the lack of self-control. We endeavor to give them the power of self-control, and the next thing after, and coming from that, is the feeling of self-respect; and the next the ability to earn a living, to obtain an honorable self-support. Then with reasonable time we do reasonably well. Under this training the men will grow intellectually; they can hardly help growing, whether or no, under the influence of these powerful motives, so that in two, three, five or more years, unless a man can't grow at all, he is a new creature in spite of himself. He has new ideas, new motives, new tastes, so that the old things have passed away and all things have become new, a regeneration wrought by force.

Question, by Dr. Gillett, Illinois: Do the courts in giving sentences give the length of time?

Answer. No; the law says they shall not say.

Question. After a person is dismissed can you recall him again if needed?

Answer. Yes.

HENRY J. DODGE, Illinois: We have heard considerable tonight about what to do with the inmates of prisons and indeterminate sentences. I would like to hear a word or two about what we shall do for them before they go there, and especially after they come out. In the city of Chicago, as here, I suppose we have police stations and jails. We have three stations containing all the women arrested for crime, and in one of them, about two weeks ago, I saw between the hours of 10 o'clock Saturday night and 9 o'clock Monday morning, fifty-six women. They were searched when they came in by male officers. They remain in this station without any female attendant whatever until they are transferred to the jail. In Chicago they have no night matron in the jail, and it is only a year since they had a day matron. So you see these women are left alone till after they get into the penitentiary; and then they do nothing for them after they are discharged. The men are sent out with a suit of clothes, so that they could not be pointed out by their apparel as convicts.

For the last five months we have had an organization for aiding discharged convicts, and in that time about 150 have applied for aid, and some 60 have found situations and are doing well. We are doing this at a cost of a little over eight dollars each to the association. It costs about $300 to convict. Putting it on the basis of dollars and cents, see how much it saves to the city and the state. For 75 men out of 150 applying to us, we obtained situations. We know where they are. I ask you this question, and I want you to seriously answer it: You may discuss these dry reports, and look over these city records, and go to the states prisons and ask yourselves what you are going to do for them while they are in the prisons; but I ask you what are you going to do for them when they come out? A criminal comes to you with $10 in money and a discharge; what will you do with the discharged convict?

Z. R. Brockway, New York (in answer to a question): We have religious services in our institution.

EIGHTH SESSION.

THURSDAY MORNING, August 10, 1882.

PRAYER BY RABBI S. H. SONNENSCHEIN, Missouri: O, eternal Father, and source of light and salvation, to thee we look, all the day of every day in the year, from the beginning to the end of our existence. We are glad to-day that thou hast preserved us from the lower state of ignorance and darkness, and hast given us so much of light and knowledge that we may use for thy glory and the good of our fellow men. To thee we look to-day, as yesterday, and all the days of our lives gone before, for the grace thy wisdom hast bestowed on us, not only to be thy children, dependent on thee, but also to a certain extent partners in the work of thy service; and for this distinction and privilege we thank thee, and that in this Conference thou dost recognize our efforts as humble instruments in thy hands for doing good. May thy wisdom and goodness direct and guide us, so that the results of our labors may be an honor to thee, to us, and to all dependent on us, so that we may glorify thee on earth, and that thy name may be hallowed through all eternity. Amen.

The Committee on the Education of the Blind had the floor for the morning session. In the absence of the chairman of the committee, Mr. Wm. B. Waite, of New York, the reports and papers which had been forwarded to Prof. A. O. Wright, as Secretary of the Conference, were referred to Mrs. Sarah F. C. Little, of Wisconsin, a member of that committee, who with other instructors of the blind had just arrived. While waiting for them to arrange for the consideration of the subject, the following discussion took place.

THE TREATMENT OF INFANTS IN INSTITUTIONS.

Dr. W. J. SCOTT, Ohio: I have listened to hear something growing out of the report from Massachusetts, how it is that they feed the babies in Massachusetts, and specially this class

of children that are sent out of the public institutions. In my experience that class has been more trouble to manage and treat than any other class of patients we have had anything to do with. Mr. Sanborn reported what to me is a very remarkable thing, if I understood correctly, that they have raised 93 per cent. of this class. (Mr. Sanborn: No, No! I will explain that). That was my understanding of that report. My experience would be that you reverse these figures, bury the 93 and raise the other 7 per cent., and I think that is the almost universal experience in hospitals.

F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts: The same question has been asked before; the explanation is needed because it is so largely at variance with the experience of others and of our own, till we found out the way to deal with this class of children, and we have been greatly surprised with our success so far. There is a difference in classes, and that class of which Dr. Scott speaks, as I suppose, is confused with that of general infant mortality. The peculiar mortality of motherless infants that have been deserted and exposed in public is another thing, and has been until recently in almost all communities very large, and our experience did not differ much from that of others, until we ascertained how to treat these children. The best foundling asylum as far as I know, cannot save the lives of more than 25 per cent. of this class of children, with the best of care. We were very much puzzled over this. We started with the idea that if they could have the same food and care as in a private family we might save them. We tried it. We gave the milk from a single cow, and yet the results were not essentially different, though we reduced the per cent. from 99 to 89, and possibly for some years down to 75, but we could not overcome the perplexing difficulty. Then we established small infant asylums, with ten or so at first, and gradually increased to 20 or 30. There the same difficulties met us. With the best management and the best physicians and ladies as attendants, we could not reduce it much below 60 per cent. In the early years we lost 60 per cent. at least of this class. It was not a very promising result.

But something must be done, and these children not be allowed to die, and the physicians and ladies went into the matter. They moved to another building, where there were better sanitary conditions, and finally they built on the most private place at Brookline, and there they established proper regulations and came to the crucial point and refused to allow more than four infants to be kept in one room, for we discovered that a single marasmic infant brought into a room where there were ten other infants would affect them all. This was discovered from long and close observation, extending over several years, and the physician of our State Alms-house, who has probably made more autopsies than anyone else in Massachusetts, discovered that when any one of these dying infants was introduced among a half a dozen or more healthy infants, from that time it was impossible to save any of them. He could not understand it at first, but he reasoned it out and discovered that an infection of some kind was conveyed from an infant dying of this marasmus, and all would become affected so that they would not assimilate food, but waste away and die. So we excluded every child of this description from the alms-house; no child was allowed to enter the State Alms-house, and if a mother dies in the alms-house and leaves a child, unless a wet nurse can be procured at once, it is removed; and these precautions are taken so that at once infection or contagion is shut off. Having done these things we did reduce the mortality of the better class of children I think to about 15 per cent. I think the asylum mortality has not been more than 15 per cent. for the last few years.

But of the other children, rejected because they were syphilitic, or for other reasons, they were thrown on the state; and the board, of which I am one of the officers, procured the passage of a law to place these children out in families, and about two years ago last winter the board undertook, through its managing officers, to distribute these poor children, many of whom were dying, or supposed to be, among families in country towns and in neighborhoods out of the city. At first we had the small number of twenty or so on hand, but the number rapidly increased until the management has now of infants under two years old, sev-

enty-six, on the first of August, and twenty-four over two years years of age. Only infants under two years of age are liable to this great mortality. These seventy-six infants have been moved since the first of June from the city of Boston; not one of them has been left in the compact limits of the city. Some of them are in the suburbs, but not as densely populated as the city. Then they are distributed in about thirty other towns, and by the regulations we put but one child in a family. Some of them have a wet nurse, but they are generally brought up on a bottle, or in ways that children are generally brought up. They are carefully visited by two medical officers of the board, one a man the other a woman, both physicians, who have this special duty of visiting these children when they are ill; and if they are not ill to visit them to see the condition of the children and the families in which they are placed. I understand that at the present time every one of them is in excellent condition. This has been going on for two years, and it is this that accounts for the present low per cent. of their mortality.

As I stated, those in the infant asylum number seventy-four, and those under the immediate care of Dr. Wheelwright about as many more, making 150 in all. During July they numbered 170 and upwards, as they were coming and going, and there were only seven deaths.

If I had been told two years ago that such results could have been secured during the summer months, I would not have believed it possible. But we know it is, because every death is reported. Any deaths among these seventy-six would be reported instantly — within twenty-four hours. The deaths at the asylum are reported weekly; and sometimes a death has escaped notice for a little more than a week. But it is absolutely sure that only this number of deaths has occurred, and we have every reason to believe, not only from the annual statistics but from the experience of this summer, that we have brought these children into a condition where less than thirty per cent. die in any given year. Of course at the end of two years more than thirty per cent. die, but my figures relate to only one year. There are but few deaths between the ages of

two and five years. We are probably saving during the period of the first two years of infancy, at least 65 per cent. of all the infants in our charge.

The Committee on the Education of the Blind then reported, through Mrs. Little, recommending the following programme, which was carried out as follows:

1. Report on the Education of the Blind, to be read in the absence of Mr. Wait, by Prof. Geo. L. Smead, of Ohio.
2. Paper by P. Lane, of Baton Rouge, Louisiana, on the Education of the Blind and Deaf Mutes in One Institution, to be read by Prof. J. J. Dow, of Minnesota.
3. Paper by B. B. Huntoon, of Louisville, Kentucky, on the Institutions for the Blind a Proper Part of Public Education, to be read by Prof. J. L. Noyes, of Fairibault, Minnesota.
4. Paper of M. Anagnos, on the Hindrances to the Welfare and Progress of State Institutions, to be read by Mrs. Asa D. Lord, of Batavia, New York.
5. Discussion upon the papers.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND.

Mr. President: I had hoped to present to the Conference some interesting facts, drawn from the United States census of 1880, but being unable to obtain the necessary statistics, I beg to submit, on behalf of the committee on the Education of the Blind, (in addition to the valuable papers kindly furnished at the request of the writer by Mr. B. B. Huntoon, Superintendent of the Kentucky school; Mr. M. Anagnos, Superintendent of the Massachusetts school, and Mr. P. Lane, of the Louisiana school), the following brief statement.

The practical work of educating the blind was begun in 1833 in New York city. There are now in the United States twenty-nine schools for the blind, having an attendance in 1881, of 2,269 pupils. The per capita appropriation ranges from $225 to $300; the difference in cost depending upon difference in numbers and facilities, on the amount, kind, and efficiency of work done, and on difference in management.

The number of pupils in the respective institutions in the year 1881, and the per cent. which that number was of the

whole number of educable blind children in the said states, was approximately as follows:

	Pupils.	Per Cent.		Pupils.	Per Cent.
Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut	118	64	Michigan	55	73
Alabama	15		Minnesota	28	70
Arkansas	35		Mississippi	33	41
California	31		Missouri	98	46
Georgia	60		Nebraska	22	
Illinois	121	37	New York City, New York, Batavia	236 170	94
Indiana	126	39	North Carolina	77	34
Iowa*	114	138	Ohio	207	66
Kansas*	50	140	Pennsylvania	217	41
Kentucky	73	39	South Carolina	16	57
Louisiana	25	32	Tennessee	45	37
Maryland	81	56	Texas	84	88
			Virginia	36	36
			West Virginia	24	64
			Wisconsin	72	81

The following propositions are presented as having been established by the experience and judgment of those who have engaged in the work of educating the blind long enough to enable them to speak knowingly.

1. That all blind children should receive an education, adapted to their wants and conditions, free of charge.

2. That indigence should in no case be made a conditon for admission.

3. That the period of pupilage, and kind of training should be adapted to the capacities of each individual case, and not made alike for all.

4. That all such schools or institutions are a legitimate part of the system of public education, and as such should be incorporated into that system, and should be separated from, and never classified with Penal, Reformatory or Eleemosynary establishments.

5. That political or partizan influences should never be permitted to effect the appointment or removal of officers or employes of any grade, nor in any way to control the management.

* In Kansas and Iowa the number of pupils exceeds the number of blind between the ages of 8 and 20 years, between which ages, the educable blind are included. The excess of per centage in these states seems to be made up of persons over 20 or under 8 years of age.

6. That blind adults should not be educated or cared for in the same school with children.

7. That two classes of defectives, as the blind, and the deaf and dumb, should not be cared for in the same school.

8. That the sexes should be separated except during the hours, and for the puposes of instruction, and all communication between interdicted.

9. That careful grading and classification should be effected, both in and out of the school room.

10. That discipline should be maintained without resort to corporal inflictions.

11. That the use of tobacco should be prohibited, and abstinence therefrom required as a condition of admission and continuance as a pupil.

12. That such schools should be located in the largest cities.

13. That each school should have three departments of instruction, viz.: literary, musical and industrial.

14. That as educated blind persons seldom become a public charge, it is wise and prudent for the public and state, to foster with a liberal hand, all institutions for the education of the blind, and to provide all needful facilities for their most efficient instruction.

Respectfully submitted on behalf of the committee on the Education of the Blind.

WM. B. WAIT,
Chairman.

EDUCATION OF THE BLIND AND DEAF MUTES IN ONE INSTITUTION.

BY P. LANE, of Baton Rogue, La.

So far as known to me the first attempt to educate the blind in the same institution with deaf mutes was made in Paris. In the beginning of the systematic training of the blind in school, a few blind pupils were placed in the institution for the deaf and dumb in Paris. The work of educating the two classes in the same establishment was opposed by so many difficulties that it was soon deemed a failure and abandoned. This blunder has been repeated in the United States, and at this moment dual institutions, or institutions for the joint education of the blind and deaf mutes are maintained in six states. Why the blind and the deaf and dumb should ever have been placed in the same institution for the purpose of education, can be answered only by supposing that it was assumed, and by some is still assumed, that as these two classes were marked by defects which widely separated them from those in a normal condition, they must in some unknown and unknowable way be near each other;

that as they were widely unlike others, they must at some point be like each other. Again, as the education of these classes is mainly a work of charity, and as the cost per person for serving a large number of persons is less than the cost per person for serving a small number, it would be cheaper to serve both classes in one establishment. I can conceive of no other reasons which can be assumed as authorizing or excusing this phenomenal folly. The union of the blind and deaf mutes in one establishment is hurtful to both, and the emphasized hurt is to the blind. Any abnormal association is injurious, because it is a multiplication of inconveniences. Any association based on a defect multiplies inconvenience and aggravates the uneasiness of every member by burdening him with the discomforts of others. To bring together the blind and the mutes is to bring together deprivations each of which shades the other with a deeper gloom and a more mournful dreariness. In the presence of the blind, the deaf mutes feel more keenly their own lack; and in presence of the mutes, the blind are more oppressed by the sense of loss. The victims of these respective deprivations placed at the opposite poles of misfortune, are removed from each other by the whole diameter of calamity; nor can any contrivance bridge the chasm that separates them. Man can not bring together what God has put asunder. It is sometimes said that the sight of the mute is serviceable to the blind, and the speech and hearing of the blind helpful to the mute. The statement declares a fancied possibility; not a real possibility that can be actualized in a fact. It is true that a deaf mute boy may guide a blind boy in walking; but such guidance serves to render more painfully conspicuous the misfortune of each, is distasteful to both, and oppressively humiliating to the blind. Communication between the blind and the mute is imperfect, slow, and painful; a wretched, ghastly grimace at intercourse; a miserable mockery of bereavement. Blindness and deaf muteness are isolating and dissocializing defects, and their isolating and dissocializing tendencies are strengthened by bringing them together. Gathering the blind into schools exclusively for them has in it something of evil. This evil is mitigated, perhaps overbalanced, by the educational process, the yearly breaking in upon school routine by the vacation, and by the circumstance that school life is limited to a few years. While at school the blind feel that they are not looked upon by visitors simply as boys and girls, but specially and emphatically as blind persons. The morbid consciousness of defect is thus excited or strengthened, and the effect is depressing. No one takes pleasure in his own lacks, or likes to place his defects upon exhibition. People do not like to expose their poverty, and blindness is a most grievous poverty. All that is here indicated is made worse in a dual institution. The educational methods required by these two classes are wholly different. For

the blind, all instructional appliances must be addressed to the touch or to the ear. For the mutes everything must be addressed to the eye. The physical training of the blind requires a special arrangement of grounds; all obstacles must be permanently removed, and there must be absolute and constant assurance that there is nothing to oppose free and full movement. For mutes such arrangement and such assurance is not required. The educator of mutes must address himself solely to the eye. He thus unconsciously acquires an exaggerated estimate of the value of the eye as a channel of communication. He doubts the practicability of educating those who lack the eye. This doubt disqualifies him for directing the education of the blind. The number of educable mutes is much greater than the number of educable blind. In a dual institution there will be at least twice as many mutes as blind. This excess of numbers will give special importance to the department for mutes, and this importance means that all efforts will be mainly to advance the mutes. Blindness depresses physically, deaf-muteness depresses mentally. The union of mutes and blind is therefore the bringing together of physical and mental depression. Two weaknesses cannot be helpful to each other; two depressions cannot elevate; two evils cannot make a good. It may be said that the dual institution may be so administered as to prevent or avoid the evil mentioned. Such an institution may be so managed as to prevent or avoid some inconveniences; but no administration can prevent the evil created by the existence of the thing administered. The real evil lies in the existence of the dual institution, not in its administration. It may be urged that blind persons have been educated in dual institutions. This may be true; but an exceptional fact does not invalidate a general truth. The fact that Enoch and Elijah escaped does not disprove the general proposition that all men are mortal. Some men have health in a pestilent morass; but it yet remains true that such a morass does not possess the conditions of salubrity. Much more might be adduced against the dual institution; but enough has been said to render apparent the inutility, and even the hurtfulness of such an establishment.

INSTITUTIONS FOR THE BLIND A PROPER PART OF PUBLIC EDUCATION.

BY B. B. HUNTOON.

Mr. President, and Members of the Conference of Charities and Corrections:

You have sent out into the bye-ways and called us blind persons, or their representatives, to this feast. We feel that we have not on the wedding garments, and it would not surprise us if some of you, having insight enough to see that we blind men were clothed neither in rags or stripes, should say to us: "Friends, how came you in hither."

This being a Conference of Charities and Corrections, it is of the utmost importance that we should have a clear idea of what are charities; for we may not differ in defining corrections; but where we have rightly drawn our defining lines, institutions for the blind, for the deaf and dumb and for the feeble-minded, will be found outside.

If any one will take the trouble to look through the annual reports of any of our institutions for the blind, he will find frequent reference made to the evil effects coming from this common mistake of considering these institutions asylums — of classifying us among the charities. True, we draw money from the public treasury, so do our state universities, our agricultural and mechanical colleges, our normal schools, and all of our public schools. Our work is exclusively educational, maintained and established for the education of blind children. We have our regular session of forty weeks, and our regular annual vacations, in which the pupils return to their homes.

It is a fact that there is not a single blind asylum supported by the state in this country. But nearly every state maintains a state school for the blind. But we are recognized by the people as asylums, and generally speaking, so we must expect to stay for a long time. But we have the right to hope that those who have a regard for the purity of their own English, will not put themselves on a level with those who write us down Blind Asylums — generally with two "s's."

We belong clearly and distinctly to the educational part of the state's work. Tradition — the customs derived from our fathers, the judgment of the best and wisest statesmen of our country, now and in past times, all declare the principle that in the general intelligence of our people lie all the hopes of the maintenance of free government. Hence in this country the prevalence of public schools. You may say that despotisms establish public schools, true, but you must not forget that in the one case the purpose of the public school is to establish

military despotism — in the other to encourage freedom. There the government secures a more intelligent soldier, here, a more intelligent citizen. And in no classes of the community can this broad distinction between the purposes of a monarchial and of a republican form of government be more clearly marked than in the management of the deaf and dumb, of the blind, and of the imbecile, in their respective countries. Abroad these defective classes are cared for, gathered into homes and asylums, and maintained, or receive at their homes a weekly dole, out of the tender mercies of a paternal government, or the charities of the humane. Here they are gathered into schools, while still in the teachable ages, and are taught independence; and they go forth from our schools able to maintain themselves and take their full part in the duties of American citizenship. Abroad, what is done for the defective classes springs from a sentiment of pity, here their claim to an education is the same as that of other children, and recognized by our state governments as a right. In this country the educated blind feel any expression of a sentiment of pity toward them as an insult, while abroad they depend upon it for their existence.

This whole miserable business of classing us among the asylums — the charities of the government — comes to us from Europe, it is an old world inheritance of error, propagated here by thoughtlessness and ignorance, and it does us harm without end.

There is no common ground upon which those who care for the defective classes in this country and those who care for them in Europe can stand. There, the avowed object is how at the least cost to support a pauper. Here, how in the best way to create a citizen.

In England they carry out their plan nobly, with a lavish hand. In that country alone are over forty different institutions for the blind, almost every one of which is an asylum. The shining exception being the Royal Normal College of Music for the Blind, established ten years ago in London, by a blind American, trained in the Tennessee School for the Blind by its blind superintendent, who was himself taught in the Pennsylvania School for the Blind.

Travelling in England ten years ago this man, F. J. Campbell, was so impressed with the wretched asylum system there of dealing with the blind that his heart was moved to show them how much better the American system might be. He established his school, and in a country where the blind have always been classed as paupers, he has made eighty per cent. of those who leave his school independent and self supporting. And all classes of society from the Queen down are amazed and delighted.

It is not from a lack of means that the blind in England are nearly all paupers, but from a wrong classification. No country

has spent more in providing the blind with embossed books; and a comparison of the print used for the blind there with the print used for the blind here tells the whole story at a glance. In a page of the American print of the same sized sheet there is five times as much reading. Why this difference? Because England's philanthropists have dealt with the adult blind as paupers, and have not thought it possible to make them independent citizens by training them in childhood, as they are trained in the United States.

But none of their institutions are supported by the government. It is in this country alone that the care of the defective classes is assumed by the state with the same objects, and to the last extent, as she assumes the care of any of her children, namely, to educate them to become citizens. And this is not an act of charity inspired by pity, but of sound state policy, whose promises of good results are confirmed by experience. Our statistics show over sixty-five per cent. of those who leave our schools become self sustaining.

It is a significant fact that our schools for the blind gather in only about one-fifth of the blind children of the land. One of the most obvious causes for this is the wrong impression produced at once by the pitiable name of asylum, given to our schools. The word carries with it to the parent, unless specially well informed, the thought of retreat, and confinement, and restraint; of a permanent separation between parents and their children, and the utter destruction of all home feelings; it puts the stigma of receiving alms upon every one of our pupils. It is frequently the preponderating influence that condemns a blind child to the double darkness of ignorance.

To you then as men and women of unusual intelligence, who have studied more deeply than most the subject of charity, I appeal to cease from classing schools among the charities. They do not belong there. You perpetuate the difficulties we have been struggling against for many years, when you brand us with your authoritative stamp as charities.

We respect, we admire, we esteem you. The work that you are doing appeals to our highest feelings. As private citizens we can profit by your experience, and gather wisdom from your counsels, but officially, we protest against any attempt to include us among the charities. And we ask your aid to help us secure a proper recognition of the fact that our state institutions for the blind, the deaf and dumb, and for the feeble-minded, are founded and maintained upon a strictly educational basis.

Specimen papers were distributed through the audience illustrating the difference between the American prints for the blind and that most widely used in England.

HINDRANCES TO THE WELFARE AND PROGRESS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

BY M. ANAGNOS.

There is an essential difference between the American and English public institutions, both in the fundamental principles of their organization and in the sources from which they derive their means of existence.

In Great Britain no provision is made by the state in its sovereign capacity in favor of the defective classes. It is true that the field of beneficence is not neglected in the least; but the means for its cultivation are not furnished from the public treasury; they are raised by the donations and contributions of benevolent individuals. Society, as such, in its organic capacity, recognizes no obligation toward its unfortunate members. It is entirely left to private charity to perform this duty. But whatever is done under this form is so hampered by conditions calculated to minister to the vanity of the donors, is so ludicrously encumbered by a complicated machinery of parade and show, of empty titles and long subscription lists; of annual dinner and begging sermons, that, although it may be very gratifying to the feelings of the givers, its blessedness is rather questionable so far as the recipients are concerned.

In this country the policy of the state is to take care of every disabled or incapacitated citizen, and to provide the means of education for every child within its borders, in view not only of his assumed rights, but also for the protection of the community itself against ignorance as a source of pauperism, and as unfitting men for the duties of citizenship. Hence public institutions for the poor and the perverse, the halt and the criminals, the blind and the deaf, the idiots and the insane, are established by law, and are supported by means raised by general taxation.

This policy, admirable and beneficial as it evidently is in most respects, is not free from grave disadvantages and certain dangers, the most serious of which are two: first, political influence in the administration and management of state institutions; and second, misapprehension of their nature, scope and objects.

I. — POLITICAL INTERFERENCE.

It would be very difficult to exaggerate the disastrous effects produced by political or partizan intervention in the selection and appointment of the officers of an establishment, and in the direction or control of its interests. The lamentable condition of many state institutions in the west and south shows conclusively that this contemptible practice is the most threatening as

it is the most insidious danger that besets them. It is a crying evil, affixing a stigma upon the communities which encourage and tolerate it. However it may be disguised under this pretense or that excuse, it is obviously pernicious in its character, demoralizing in its influence, unscrupulous in its aims, plunderous in its attempts, vindictive in its purposes, destructive in its tendencies and reckless in its action. Through the viciousness of this system the usefulness of state institutions is greatly impaired, and their efficiency crippled. Experienced superintendents, trained and intelligent teachers, skillful physicians, faithful officers and honest employes are summarily dismissed from their places for no other cause but simply in order to make room for corrupt politicians, and to gratify the hunger for office of their henchmen and associates who were howling on the confines of party strife. Under such circumstances the vital forces of public service are weakened, the springs of enthusiasm and earnest devotion to duty are dried, activity and hopefulness are succeeded by apathy and despondency, and men of acknowledged ability, scholarly attainments and independence of character are driven out of their chosen professions. This evil has already assumed such enormous dimensions in several sections of the country that it cannot possibly be cured by the ordinary means of grace; and, unless the good people of all political parties and religious sects unite in a determined effort to close the gates of public institutions against the whirlwind of political antagonisms, partizan strife and capricious favoritism — too often bringing with them confusion and desolation — the provision made by the state for the maintenance and support of these establishments will prove in many instances a source of annoyance and trouble instead of a blessing of convenience and permanent peace.

So much for the causes and results of political interference, and for the necessity of its immediate repression.

II.— MISAPPREHENSION OF THE CHARACTER OF INSTITUTIONS.

Let me now proceed to the second topic of my paper — which I must confess is the leading motive in its composition — and state briefly the effects of the misunderstanding of the nature and objects of state institutions.

It is well known that some of these establishments have their origin in the idea of the supreme reign of law and order and the protection of society; others in the pity and sympathy for the disabled and suffering members of the human family; and still others in the right to a thorough education, which the state accords to all its children, irrespective of creed, color, social condition, or physical defects. In other words, public institutions are either penal, reformatory, eleemosynary or educa-

tional in their character. A thorough knowledge of this character, as well as of the main objects of each of the state institutions, will help those in authority not only to minister properly to the wants and training of their inmates, but to infuse into them that spirit of manliness, dignity and independence which is so essential in the encouragement of individual efforts to self respect and maintenance, and in the general successes of life. A misapprehension of this character will lead, on the other hand, to mistaken views of imaginary economy, or to more illusions as to the magnificent results of centralization in the administration of public charities, or to the adoption of unwise rules and measures which will prove in time positively detrimental to the vital interests of the society.

It is with sincere regret that I am obliged to say in this connection, that the very call to the managers of the schools for the blind to join in the deliberations of the "National Conference of Charities and Corrections" is a striking illustration of such understanding. It shows conclusively, that the nature and scope of the education of sightless children is not as widely understood as it ought to be. In consequence of this imperfect knowledge, they are arbitrarily separated from the deaf mutes and are unjustly and indiscriminately classed with paupers, criminals and insane.

I earnestly hope that the representatives of the variou schools for the instruction of the blind will not assent tacitly to this unfortunate misunderstanding. It will be very unwise, to say the least, on their part to do so. Duty as well as the fundamental principles of their work and the vital interests of their charge alike demand that they should endeavor to rectify this error as soon as possible. For myself, I feel compelled to remonstrate against it. The school with which I am connected is founded upon the solid rock of equity and not upon the piers of pity and favor. It has therefore no official relation whatever with the state board of charities. It is placed by law where it properly belongs, namely under the supervision of the state board of education. It is classed with the state normal schools, the state art school, the state agricultural college and the schools for the deaf mutes; and I cannot allow myself to do the least thing which may have even the appearance of dragging it back among the eleemosynary and reformatory establishments. In my judgment, the discussions in which the instructors of the blind ought to participate are those of the "National Educational Association" and the "American Institute of Instruction," and to take an active part in anything pertaining to the improvement of the methods of teaching, mental development, physical and technical training, moral education, school discipline, and the like.

For these reasons I feel constrained not only to request that my name be dropped from the list of members of the standing

committee which was appointed at the last meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, but to raise my feeble voice against the injustice of classifying the schools for the blind with charitable, penal or reformatory institutions.

PROF. J. L. NOYES, Minnesota: I will state that in Minnesota we had a deaf and dumb asylum, supplemented by a department for the blind, and after a while for feeble minded children, which were all under one board of trustees and one superintendent, but now they are separated.

I endorse from personal experience what has been said in relation to the separation of the blind, they are so separate and distinct from other classes that they should not be brought into one building under the same management, they are separate and should be kept separate.

DR. J. W. WALK, Pennsylvania: I am not an expert on the subject of the treatment of the blind, but I am interested in the success and welfare of these charitable institutions. I would call attention to what seems to me an inconsistency. I don't see how institutions of this class can be put on the same basis as our public schools. The public schools are founded, and defended, on the idea of protection to society. I don't believe that institutions for the care and education of the deaf and dumb and blind can be put on that ground as readily as for the insane. There are not numbers enough of the deaf and dumb and blind in the country to endanger the government, and their infirmity prevents them from it. There is no way to deal with them only as we come out fairly and frankly and above board, and do it on the noble ground of charity, and for their benefit. They are quite different from our public schools. If our children who can hear and see are allowed to grow up in ignorance and become criminals, they become a source of danger to the state. It is said that institutions for the blind are not penal, nor reformatory, nor charitable; but that in them the sexes should be entirely separated, except in recitations. Now, on what grounds shall citizens of the United States be denied the right of social intercourse? If you accept a part of the theory you must accept all. We certainly could not deny that

in the common school, where a most important part of the training is in the association in work with the opposite sex.

Prof. Geo. L. Smead, Ohio: The people in society may need a higher education than the pupils of our blind institutions; but is the education in our high schools, or in the technical schools in many of the states, based on the idea of protection to society? I think not. I recollect of reading an article by the President of the University of Minnesota, in which he disclaims any such object in that institution. But the education of the blind may be looked on as a protection, on the ground that we ought to protect citizens from anything that tends to degrade and debase, and nothing tends to that more than pauperism and begging on the part of the blind.

In regard to the separation of the sexes, and why it should be done in an institution for the blind, the blind, by their infirmity which renders them more or less dependent on the assistance of others, should not be put in such relations that they will form attachments for one another. Certainly it is undesirable for one to have a blind woman for a wife, on account of the evils that may arise from such a union. For that reason it is desirable to have the sexes separated; their complete separation may not be desirable or practical. But no such reasons exist for the separation of the sexes in our public schools.

Prof. J. J. Dow, Minnesota: In the institution with which I am connected, the asylum for the deaf and dumb, and speaking from years of experience, I prefer to bring the sexes together in the family relation. I say to the young ladies and gentlemen at the beginning of the year: Arrange yourselves at the table one-half ladies and one-half gentlemen. They come together at the meals, go together to the tables, and we have socials in the evenings. We get up a social once a month and have a "break down,"—a good time together. The education of these classes is for the protection of society. I call to mind a case in New York, a young man who was deaf and dumb, who had never been educated, who was hired out on a farm. He became disatisfied with his condition and one day in

a fit of passion slew his employer. He was convicted of the crime. He was found to be uneducated; he knew nothing about these things and the responsibilities of his relations to society, except that he ought not to have done it. It is a fact that if these children are not taken by the state and trained aright, they will not be educated. If the state does not do it, it will not be done, and they will be allowed to grow up and pass a merely animal existence, without restraint.

In regard to our own institution, some of our pupils that have grown up and gone from us, are married, and respected as members of society. Some of them are in positions of honor. One is the editor of an influential paper; one is a banker; one is a clerk in a leading bank. What they would be to-day if they had not been educated no man can say. In one case a father said: This boy must go somewhere, he rules the house, and keeps it in disorder, and we can't have any comfort with him here. He came to the asylum, and after he had been with us a year they declared him to be a most lovely member of the family. He is well along in his course, and gives promise of graduating with honor. These children are brought together as in families, and are taught a trade for usefulness and are educated to become intelligent members of society; and these institutions belong where Massachusetts puts them, in the educational class, and not with the eleemosynary and penal institutions of the state.

Rabbi S. H. Sonnenschein, Missouri: I would ask the gentleman a question; whether they have any paying imates of the institution, and if so, in what proportion to the non-paying ones?

Prof. J. L. Noyes, Minnesota: I can't answer to such a thing as that. There are parents who are able and willing to to pay, but for many of them the requirement to pay would be an unjust hardship.

In Minnesota the pupils are not required to pay. A special provision is made for the education of this class.

Prof. J. W. Swiler, Wisconsin, superintendent Deaf and Dumb Institution: The question has been asked whether

pupils in these institutions are required to pay. In reference to Wisconsin, these institutions are to a certain extent placed on the same basis as the public schools, the tuition is free, being paid by the state, and the child is not only provided with an education, but also with board and lodging.

I feel like returning thanks for the able papers of this morning, and what has been said in relation to schools for the blind and deaf and dumb, and that they should not be considered as asylums, but rather homes. What was said in regard to political influences and removals, in the main meets with my hearty sanction and approval.

With reference to the education of the blind and the deaf and dumb together in one institution, I know of no good reason why it should be done, but a good many why it ought not to be done. Those bereft of sight must receive their education mainly through the sense of hearing; and those bereft of hearing mainly through the sense of sight. So the manner of their education must be different; and here is a special reason for the separation of these classes, not only in regard to their literary education, but also in regard to their physical training. The training for these two classes is essentially unlike, and increased attention should be given to the physical education of the blind, as from their peculiar infirmity they need it. There are 2,229 in the institutions for the blind in the United States. The last census report, for 1880, says there are 40,000 blind persons and 35,000 deaf and dumb in the United States; while 7,000 of the deaf and dumb children are under instruction, or about one-fifth, only a small portion of those who ought to be; and I deem it well that this special branch of education should be recognized and receive the earnest attention of this Conference.

Prof. Philip G. Gillett, Illinois, Superintendent Deaf and Dumb Institute: I would allude to a popular mistake that I see my friend, Mr. Swiler has fallen into with reference to the per cent. of deaf mutes in school, and the per cent. of blind persons in school. There is a very much larger number of blind people than of deaf people in the community; but there is a

very much larger number of deaf than of blind children in the community, and the per cent. of the educable blind in these institutions is very nearly as large as the educable deaf and dumb. Blindness comes more frequently with adult years, while there are more deaf and dumb in the earlier years than of the blind. The entire number of the blind in society is greater than that of the deaf and dumb; but the number of deaf and dumb children exceeds the number of blind children.

Prof. A. O. Wright, Wisconsin: A word of explanation in regard to this subject being brought before the Conference. Last year, in Boston, in conversation with Mr. Anagnos and Mrs. Lord, I learned that the biennial session of the instructors of the blind was to meet at Janesville in this state. I suggested that it would be a proper thing for the two bodies to meet on successive weeks, that some of us might attend each, and also that it might be a good thing, as we had a standing committee one year on feeble-minded children, to substitute this for a committee on the blind this year, and some other year on deaf mutes, etc. That seemed to meet with their approval, and I brought it before the business committee of this Conference, and thinking it would be a good plan they adopted it, after being approved by several superintendents of institutions. We placed the time of the meeting of the Conference later than usual so as to come a week before the meeting at Janesville.

I don't think any member of the Conference last year thought we were doing anything wrong, or against our policy or theirs in inviting them to be here. We recognize these facts, that the blind and deaf mutes belong to the defective or dependent classes more or less, and that they may be rescued from their dependence in a large measure, and their defective condition helped by means of these institutions. But for all that they belong to the defective classes. The United States recognizes that, in the department of the census under the charge of our friend Wines, in relation to the collection of statistics, in which they are recognized as a part of the defective and dependent classes; and in most states the double relations of the blind and the deaf mutes are recognized; so that in one sense institutions

for them are educational institutions, and therefore under the educational supervision of the several states; in another sense they come under the head of institutions for the defective classes, and are under the supervision of boards of charities.

A. G. Byers, Ohio: Is there any state now where the institutions for the deaf and dumb and blind have passed into the hands of the board of education?

F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts: This subject has been agitated in Massachusetts; a friend of mine brought it before the legislature and secured the transfer of the supervision of the institutions from the board of charities to the board of education. The board of charities never desired to retain them, but under the law were compelled to supervise them. But they said, "If you will change the law we will give them up." It seems to me it is a matter of very slight importance. Prof. Wright and Dr. Walk have stated the case very well. The blind and the deaf and dumb are to a certain extent, for all practical purposes, subject to public charity.

Prof. A. O. Wright, Wisconsin: This is largely a question of terms and names. In this National Conference we are engaged in a work analagous in many things to that of those working in this particular direction, and we are very glad indeed to see so many representatives of the blind and deaf and dumb institutions here, and we are glad to cooperate with them. We will not quarrel about terminology at all if they are with us and can counsel in regard to these different classes that are to a great extent dependent on the public.

Rev. Marcus Lane, California: There is one thing in relation to the matter which has been passed over. I have lived for twelve years near an institution for the deaf and dumb and blind. I will say nothing now about the deaf and dumb, but only in relation to the blind; and especially as to whether it is proper to consider an asylum for the blind a charitable institution of the state. I have taken a great deal of pains to become thoroughly acquainted with the workings of that institution, and the commissioner who had control of it was for fifteen years a close personal friend of mine, and I have often talked the

matter over with him, and have conferred with him in special cases.

In that state, wherever there are blind children in the county poor-houses that ought to be educated, they are taken and put in the state institution. I have asked the gentleman in regard to the necessity for a state institution for the blind. He said these blind children in the poor-houses became objects of charity, and unless the state takes them and teaches them to earn a living, a very large portion of them will always be objects of charity, and some of them beggars on the streets He pointed out a very bright girl who was showing proficiency in a trade. He said: "We took that girl from our own poor-house when she was an object to be pitied in every respect, and educated her, and now she can earn a good living for herself." He pointed out one and another who had been taken out of the poor houses of the state, who had had no education in the poor-houses, whom they had educated and were doing well. It needs special aparatus for their education. He stated repeatedly that the majority of the children in the blind institution were sent there by the counties from their poor-houses, and were supported by the state.

There is a distinction made, however. Where these children come from wealthy families, the parents are expected to provide clothing and certain luxuries; but most of them have come onto the counties, and from them onto the state. And while these unfortunate children of the wealthier parents of the state come there simply because it is the best place to get an education, and are in no sense objects of charity, there are those in the institution who do properly come under the head of charity, and the state supports them as such.

Rabbi S. H. Sonnenschein, Missouri: I would ask a question, or make a suggestion, simply for the reason that I have a state in my mind where the prevailing idea is that the great majority of inmates in such institutions belong to the poorer classes, and where the institutions are therefore classed as charitable institutions. As the remarks of my friend from California suggest, it is only because this institution is managed so

beautifully that the better class avail themselves of its advantages. The difference of terms in the language used in relation to these institutions reminds me of a story.

Once there was a subject and high officer of the Sultan of Turkey and a follower of Mahomet traveling in Switzerland and enjoying himself among the Gentiles. He sat at the table in the hotel and looked with longing glance at the pork chop in his neighborhood. He said: "Will you please pass me that veal cutlet?" He was answered: "That is not veal, your excellency; that is pork." He replied: "Give me that veal." It was given him, and enjoying it with a relish, he said: "That is nice veal; it tastes like veal." So it with these things. As long as we get the benefit of these excellent institutions it matters little by what name they are called.

PROF. GEO. L. SMEAD, Ohio: In regard to the education of the deaf and dumb and blind together in our state, it was only for the reason of practicing economy. That is the vital point, and I wish to call the attention of the members of State Boards of Charity to that. When the question comes up in a new state for the establishment of these institutions where there is barely enough to establish one institution, the temptation is great to put them both together. How shall this be met? You can say to them that it will be much cheaper to send the blind to another state where they have all the facilities already existing for properly educating this class, and there they can properly educate as teachers for your own state. That has been done repeatedly. West Virginia used to send her blind to Ohio, and they get their blind educated at a nominal expense.

As to whether it should be called charity or education, that is a question which has two sides to it. I suppose that Mr. Anagnos and Mr. Huntoon feel the importance of establishing in the minds of blind persons the high-minded idea of being independent. It is a calamity that has a depressing influence, physically and mentally, and in the education of the blind we have to meet this tendency all the time, and overcome it, and establish a feeling of independence. The idea has been for ages that blind people are babies to be carried in the arms of

the community, without allowing their feet to touch the ground, but the genius of American institutions has been to set these persons on their feet and tell them to walk alone, to stand up as men and women in the world. I think this is the feeling we all have, that we do not wish them nursed in asylums and institutions where their feeling of dependence will be increased, and ground into them, but rather that these institutions should be for their education in literature, music, and especially in industrial pursuits, to enable them to take their places in the race of life. But we don't want to cut loose from this Conference by any means.

There are points where our interests touch each other, and in Ohio especially, where our endeavor is to make the blind industrious and independent, in many cases we fail, as others sometimes fail. We need to supplement our work, in order that our graduates may go on and help themselves. The community must help them to that degree that they will win, or they will fail. It is just here we can ask at least the sympathy and help of the board of charities in devising means to accomplish the end, whether by public or private charity, to supplement the efforts of the blind men and women, and especially the blind women, where blind women are admitted to our institutions. We admit a boy or girl. A girl is more likely to be dependent. She comes out a refined, intelligent young lady, accomplished in music. What shall we do with her? Having perhaps no friends, shall we send her to the county asylum? We recoil from that. We have one case, that child has been on my mind for years with this question in view. What is to become of that young lady when she has finished here? Shall we send her back to the infirmary from which she came? Would that be honorable, fair, honest? She is capable of moving in the best society. It is all right for her now, for we have a place for her in our institution, but we don't do that for all. And right here we can work together. In the state of New York I think they are making inquiries about making a working home for the blind.

In regard to the association of the sexes together in our insti-

tutions, there is some difference of opinions and practice among our superintendents, although we all recognize the fact that it is undesirable for them to form life connections with each other. Still we think there are certain educational advantages and influences in helping to establish the spirit of independence in their minds by their association with each other. A blind boy has the same right to the benefit of association with a lady in the same condition, or in any other condition, as anyone else, if it is a benefit. The same way with a blind girl.

There are always difficulties in the way, and the main question is that of bread and butter. In regard to whether a blind man should marry a blind woman, the main question is that of support; so that stands very much in the way to prevent that which we desire to prevent. But there is a difference of practice and opinion in this respect. Some of us hold that they should be entirely separated, and some otherwise.

Mr. PROCTOR, of the Wisconsin State Board of Supervision, speaking for the Wisconsin Institution for the Education of the Blind, invited the members of the Conference to attend the sessions of the National Convention of Instructors of the Blind, at Janesville, the following week, beginning on Tuesday.

MISCELLANEOUS QUESTIONS.

A question box was then passed, and many written questions sent up to the chair, who read them and called for answers.

Question 1. "Is it the opinion of this Conference that the detailed accounts of crime given by the press tend to promote crime?"

MRS. ELIZABETH BOYNTON HARBERT, Illinois: (Of the *Inter-Ocean.*) I wish to say to the noble men and women here that I hope from this hour our efforts for accomplishing good through the press may be more aggressive. I know from conversations with leading editors of some of the great papers, and pleading with them in regard to these long details of crime, which no man or woman, who cares for the welfare of his children, dare put into the hands of his boys or girls, that they are willing to

help us. Gentlemen have said to me, we are willing and anxious if the people are ready for a reform in this respect. I sometimes think there is no man in the country that has less opportunity of feeling the public pulse, unless it is the party pulse, than the editor of a great daily journal. Why? Because he goes into his sanctum at nine o'clock and frequently remains till midnight hours, hearing a steady stream of accounts of crime and politics until he imagines that the public respond only to these questions.

But we have it in our power to change this. We can furnish the press with news of a better and more elevating character, which will crowd out the bad to a great extent. So let us send in more good reading to the press; send in paragraphs of interest. Let us capture the press. We can do it; it is in our power to work for good in this way.

There is work for women also in this direction. Why not visit jails and other institutions, and give the facts as we see them, and suggestions. If there are meetings held, send in an account of them, or write a letter to the editor saying such a meeting is to be held, at such time and place, and send us one of your best reporters.

I ask you gentlemen and ladies to think over this matter and make it the basis of at least one paper at your next annual conference. Let us do what we can to banish as much as possible these accounts of crime which have so much influence for evil, especially upon the young.

I am thankful that I am permitted to meet with you who are engaged in this great work. You have builded better than you thought. You have added power to your work by calling in the aid of the noble women workers. I see here the womanly reserves, who by their loyalty to the cause of truth will aid you in your grand work.

Question 2. "What is the practical value of teaching lip reading and articulation in the schools for the deaf and dumb?"

H. H. Giles, Wisconsin: I wish the question could be referred to a standing committee of this conference to report at the next annual session. There has been a great deal of dis-

cussion, not only in Wisconsin, but everywhere by those interested in the education of the deaf and dumb. I desire that the committee be composed of those best posted and most prominent in the education of deaf mutes.

PROF. PHILLIP G. GILLETT, Illinois: I am not prepared to answer the question now. It has been discussed for the last fifteen years on both sides. Under the head of deaf mutes are comprised several divisions. Some are congenitally deaf; some become so while they are young; some after a moderate degree of speech has been acquired, at the age of eight, or ten, or twelve. Each one of these classes has peculiarities not pertaining to any other class. To those who have acquired speech the teaching of lip reading is a very great help. There are some who have acquired speech before they lose their hearing, but who find it difficult to conserve this faculty. Then comes in lip reading, and it is an astonishing fact that some natural mutes become most acute and adept as lip readers.

Question. In your observation has the practice of articulation among mutes ever led them to abandon the sign language in communicating with each other?

Answer. I have not seen it unless there was a special reason why they desired to do so.

Question. Is there not a question as to its practical utility?

Answer. Between mutes themselves they always resort to the language of signs as a rule. But they have an immense advantage in having another means of communication than by the language of signs.

Question 3. In a number of cases where the Society for the prevention of Cruelty to Children has instituted proceedings, the custody of children has been awarded to the society; what disposal does the society make of them?

A. G. BYERS, Ohio: With us the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children brings it before the probate court, or a magistrate, and if it is a Catholic child he places it in the care of a Catholic institution, if a Protestant child under the care of a Protestant institution, and that institution has assumed to be *in loco parentis*, and has placed them out. But we have

come to the conclusion that the court could not transfer its jurisdiction to any institution, and is compelled to keep it until we can get a law giving power to the court to transfer the child to one of these institutions, and giving it the right to put it out.

Rev. M. McG. Dana, Minnesota: In Minnesota we have had no legislation on the subject.

Question 4. Has the supreme court of any state decided the constitutionality of any law which gives the power to take children from their parents?

Mrs. Elizabeth Holt Babbitt, Illinois: Yes.

Question 5. What are the steps most necesary to take to establish State Boards of Charity in states that do not have them now?

The President: Elect good sensible men to the legislature and have them do so.

F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts: First send good men to a conference like this, and then have good men in the legislature to create a proper sentiment there.

Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, Ohio: In my experience the best thing to do in this matter, as in everything else, is to interest the legislature itself. Take any gentleman here who wants to establish a State Board of Charity, and the best thing to do is first to know what kind of a law you want. The first thing, I should think, would be to get the laws of other states. Last year, as chairman of the committee on the subject, I gathered together all the laws of ten states which have boards of charity, and they are comprehended in our report and can be had here. Look that over to see what kind of a law you would like to have. Then draft your law and get some man to introduce it in the legislature. It will be referred to a committee. Then go to the committee and explain what you want. Or go to the governor and get him to recommend it in advance. But the great difficulty is to determine what you want; then draft your law when you have decided; then get some one to introduce it; then take time to present the matter to members of the legislature; talk it up, explain it to them, urge the reasons for it and get it passed.

NINTH SESSION.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, Aug. 11, 1882.

Special order for the hour the further discussion of the paper by H. H. Giles, *County Care of Insane Paupers.*

GOV. JEROME, Michigan: It is my desire to hear others and not to make a speech myself. I came hear to learn. I understand Mr. Giles wishes to say something further on the subject of his paper, and I desire to hear from him.

H. H. GILES, Wisconsin: *Mr. President:* I intimated the other evening at the close of the discussion that I desired to say a few words before this matter was entirely passed over. I did not feel like participating in the discussion until those who had arrayed themselves so earnestly against the proposition I laid down in the paper, had unburdened their minds. I have reflected somewhat on what was said the other evening and I fail to see that the positions I assumed have been successfully assailed. But I succeeded in drawing out admissions from some of our friends who represent some states in this conference, that caused me not only humiliation, but pain. I did not know, sir, that there was in this land of ours a condition of things in any of our public institutions anything of the character of what we were told belonged to the poorhouses of Illinois and Ohio. Why, sir, if I was a citizen of Ohio or Illinois, I should say in the language of Dr. Byers, with a little variation: "God protect the paupers in the poorhouses of Illinois; God protect the paupers in the poorhouses of Ohio." We have no such condition of things in Wisconsin. It is true that ten years ago we had some of these things which they told us the other evening exist in those states, but there is nothing of the kind now. Our poorhouses are not all we wish them to be. But I want to say, and to emphasize what the president has said, that the poorhouses as regards cleanliness and good order will com-

pare favorably with the country homes of the average better class of people residing on the farms of this state.

Another thought struck me, and that was that the boards of charity in those states have not done their duty, or else the people of those states are in a semi-civilized condition. Such things as we were told of would not be tolerated for an hour in Wisconsin, and we don't pretend to be greatly advanced in civilization. The evils complained of in those states have been entirely removed in our state. How? By the efforts of the State Board of Charities and Reform. Members of our board have visited every county in the state, and some of them two or three times a year. In one county visited by the members of the board, we set forth things just as we found them, in the public prints. The next week the superintendent denied the truth of that report. That called the attention of the governor to it. He authorized an examination. We made an examination of witnesses, of the members of the county board, and the superintendent of the poor; and every charge made against it by the members of the state board was fully established and so reported to the governor. The next year the people revolutionized that county, put in another man as superintendent, and since that time it has been a fairly conducted institution.

In regard to the restraints practiced on the insane, I visited some seventeen poorhouses last fall where there were over one hundred pauper insane, and I found only one insane pauper that was under restraint.

Another charge brought against our system is that of political influences on the county boards. In Wisconsin the overseers of the poor board are elected for three years. We know nothing about politics in this matter. There are very little politics here. There was an independent temperance party last fall, but that is about all the disturbance we had.

The system we have adopted here is the outgrowth of the improved condition of our poorhouses. It is like Topsy, it was not born, it growed. As the poorhouses improved the insane were better taken care of, until they have attained their present satisfactory efficiency.

GEN. R. BRINKERHOFF, Ohio: It seems to me a mistake has been made about our poorhouses. All I have to say is that there is no member of our state board but is perfectly willing to have our poorhouses compared with those of the state of Wisconsin, or any other state. Our poorhouses are not near so bad as they were when we begun.

There is one reason why we object to your system. We have studied it carefully for years. We have sought the experience of experts in every direction, and have come to the conclusion, the board and the people, that there should not be in the county poorhouses any children, any insane, or idotic. We believe that it is no place for them, and that in the nature of things the insane can't have the care and attention in the county poorhouses they ought to have. If these gentlemen will go into a county large enough to have an asylum for say 200 or 300, we have no objection to their erecting one. But that is impossible, impracticable in an ordinary county; they are going to cost too much money. And so we say the insane ought to be under state control. The insane should have proper medical care. A person competent to take care of them must have special training, and these gentlemen in the county poorhouses will tell you they don't know anything about it — that they have had no experience. So we feel that in the nature of things the state alone can furnish the necessary care for this class of dependents.

BISHOP G. D. GILLESPIE, Michigan: *Mr. President:* It strikes me that this discussion is out of order. To my mind this is a question between large and small asylums for the insane; whether we shall have two or three or four large institutions, or a number of small ones. My own idea is that it is advisable to have small rather than large institutions. They can be made much cheaper and better for the treatment of the insane, and the direction I would like to see the debate take is the consideration and the giving of information regarding smaller institutions. There is great complaint about the larger institutions. The buildings are very expensive, and the treatment is very expensive. And that is one reason why I would

like to get the gentleman from Illinois on his feet to tell us about Kankakee, because some years since he read a paper in opposition to the views commonly held, and that plan he told us was to be carried out.

Dr. David Rogers, New York: I find my position misunderstood in reference to county asylums. I have lived in one of the largest state asylums in this country. I have been in many of them. The question recurs — What is the best to do for the unfortunate insane? I am interested in this question here. Who knows what day I may be incarcerated in an asylum and become a subject for treatment? Therefore I am interested in them, and it has this personal interest for all.

I believe the system of congregating large numbers in one asylum to be detrimental to the proper treatment of the insane. I believe that county asylums on the basis of the state asylums, and placing them under the care of competent attendants and physicians, to be the best, and that they will be better cared for than in the larger institutions. I am not here to question the medical intelligence of the United States, but I can say, without fear of contradiction, that there is not a county in the state of New York but what has the medical ability necessary to have charge and take care of the insane. I would not have the county asylum organization based upon the poorhouse or almshouse system, but would have an institution for the direct medical care and treatment of the insane, with a view to their restoration, on the most approved plans. I believe the organization of county asylums can do this, and these unfortunates will have better care, and greater numbers will be cured at less expense to the state and to the county, than on the state asylum plan. And I think this will solve the question: What shall we do with our unfortunate insane?

Governor Jerome, Michigan: In the state of Michigan some two years since, we had this question before us; we had more insane people than we had any established means to take care of. The question then came up as between the state asylums, an additional one, the poorhouse system, and the county system. The county system had many advocates on

the theory that the insane should be divided into classes, the curables and the incurables. It was my fortune to take the responsibility of presenting to the legislature some suggestions, and recommending that some action be taken. We found ourselves confronted by a dilemma, whether we should go on the plan of local institutions, like the poorhouses or county houses, or on that of state institutions. I called on the most expert men in Michigan as specialists in this direction, and men who had had control of state institutions for years, and right here we ran onto a difficulty. Every one of these men thought we ought to have hospital treatment for the insane; that they ought to go to the hospital at once, nor should they be taken from there and put into county houses. Every man that had the ability to decide such a question said he was in favor of the separation of the curable from the incurable. I was furnished with the opinion of more than twenty of the most eminent men in the country in that particular line of professional duty, and every one said he would shrink from such a work unless they should separate the curable from the incurable. There we were. If we were to have hospital treatment for any, where should we draw the line? The result was that we abandoned the local system, and ordered a new asylum built. Perhaps we made a mistake; I don't know. Let me suggest one thing about the duties of the board of charities in Michigan, which my friend Giles has drawn out. [Mr. Giles: Excuse me, but I did not criticise the board of charities of Michigan.] Their investigation of this subject led to this conclusion, that an insane person put in the poorhouse is a dangerous man, always, to his associates there; and if you put him there what is to be done? They have not the proper facilities for taking care of him, and they must chain him up, or lock him up; that is the result.

Question. In your state asylums do they lock them up?

Answer. It is a very rare thing in the state of Michigan.

I think the state board of charities has improved the management of the poorhouses of Michigan vastly, and I am glad to bear testimony to their efficient work in our state, but I don't

believe they can, and I don't ever expect of them the ability to put the poorhouses in such a condition that with one inefficient man over it and one matron, they can properly take care of the insane.

The gentlemen of our state who favor the separation of the insane come with the advantage of merit for their opinions, for the reason that in this connection with the institutions of Michigan, they have been enabled to cure over 60 per cent. of all cases brought to them within twelve months after being taken with this malady. That is what the statistics show in the record for 600 cases.

Question. Extending over how many years?

Answer. I can't tell you.

Now I would like to hear from others; and if you propose to build local institutions, how are you going to manage it in regard to their size, ventilation, drainage, heating, etc.?

THE PRESIDENT: These dangerous classes of the insane, and the incurables, what do they do with them in Michigan, are they provided for in the hospitals?

Answer. We take them to the hospital.

Question. Are they either chained or locked up, or drugged?

Answer. We take them and in a few days time we have them with the other patients as harmless as children.

Michigan has its institutions built at the expense of the state. When a person goes to one of these asylums, if he is able to pay it he pays it. If he is a charge on the county the county pays it. There is no patient in the asylum but has to be paid for by somebody, either personally, or by the county, or if a municipal charge, by that, or by those from whom he came. Michigan has never had any trouble with political disturbances connected with these institutions or in the appointment of officers or their management.

F. B. SANBORN, Massachusetts: I don't think we are so far apart as we appear to be after some of these animated speeches. This question is a difficult one. Who will undertake to say what particular persons in an insane asylum are curable or incurable? But that is just what they are practically doing in

some states every day, when they turn over to the care of poor-houses the persons whom they regard as incurable. They say, and truly, that nothing but omnipotent omniscience can decide whether A. and B. are curable or not curable. But when I say to them: "How many incurables have you got in your hospital?" they reply without hesitation, not more than thirty or so, or whatever the number may be; and they discharge every week in the year persons as incurable who they say may possibly recover. The question is not whether they are possibly curable or incurable, but how the great mass we know as practically incurable shall be provided for — and we know these to be practically incurable because experience shows it. The statement of any superintendent who comes forward now after the researches of Dr. Earle, of Northampton, and the investigations in some other hospitals of Massachusetts, and declares that he has cured 60 per cent. of all his cases, will not be believed by any body of experts in the world. If any such gentleman comes forward with his statistics, we say to him: "Prove your case; where are they? Do they continue to be sane?" It is a fact that a large per cent. of those who are discharged as cured are sure to become insane again, and are returned to the hospitals. This matter need not be gone over again here; the practical question is settled against the former theory of the curability of insanity, even when taken early. There is the dictum of the English physician, Dr. Thurnam, I think, who lays down this proposition: That of five cases of insanity who present themselves in the hospital, two will recover during the first attack; that two will die during the first attack, and the fifth person will survive as incurable, while of those two persons who recover during the first attack, a certain proportion invariably become insane again; and the result is that you can't be sure of the permanent recovery of over 40 per cent. All our experience in Massachusetts (where an examination of the records in the Worcester hospital during nearly fifty years has been made by the superintendent), shows that a large proportion of those who were reported cured, actually died insane. If any superintendent of an insane hospital

will submit his figures to analysis we shall find his result, in general terms, to be the same.

If the hospitals are so successful in recoveries, why should they be cumbered with five-sixths of their patients who are incurable?

That is our real difficulty in Massachusetts. We have in our state hospitals and asylums alone, over 3,000 patients; weekly returns for last week showed that. Every superintendent will tell you that of these 3,000, not more than 500 are curable. They would all say of these 3,000 persons: "It is not within the limits of possibility that more than 500 of them can be cured." What follows? There are 2,500 persons in these hospitals and asylums, mainly in the hospitals, that cannot be cured. These hospitals were built to accomplish the recovery of the patients; this class never recover. Then why should they remain there and reduce the dormitories at night to a condition something like that of some of the county poorhouses as they have been described here. Or why build hospitals as in Massachusetts, at a cost of $3,000 for each patient, for patients that are never cured, when they can put them in cheaper places with just as good medical treatment? I visit monthly one hospital with nearly 700 patients — at least 650 — incurables; and another with about the same number.

Question. How many medical officers attend these 1,300 patients?

Answer. In both of them I think there are at the present time eight medical officers who have charge of these 1,300 patients.

If you can find any respectable physician in this or any other state who will say he can attend to one-eighth of 1,300 patients daily, and do any sort of justice to them, you will find more than I ever did. The American Association of Medical Superintendents, state their conclusion that they can deal with 500 or 600 patients in one hospital, and several superintendents have more than a thousand. But certain superintendents, among them Dr. Earle, one of the best in the country, have always maintained that small hospitals are the best. He has now not quite 500 patients; he is obliged to take them; but he does not want

more than 250, and would rather take less, and I suppose he has the largest experience and is the best informed in regard to insanity of any superintendent in the country, perhaps in the world. He said to this conference last year, (and I had a conversation with him less than a week ago), that a large portion of the chronic insane could be treated as well in a well managed poorhouse as in his hospital.

A DELEGATE: Our asylums are all crowded. Next year we have probably got to build new asylums. The real question is shall the insane be located in small asylums, or shall they be herded in great hospitals where they will be in the hands of a few specialists who have brought us into the condition we are now. Or shall we adopt the theories of those who are endeavoring to throw off all state supervision and hold that every hospital shall be a little dominion in itself.

GEN. BRINKERHOFF, Ohio: If you put small institutions in different parts of the state and can afford to do it, and have them well managed, we in Ohio say: Amen. But the moment you allow that thing to be done, or allow each county to take care of its own incurables you have abuses.

MR. SANBORN: In the case where they are unable to build these institutions, they must have their insane provided for in the large hospitals. In regard to the management of these asylums, we do not always get the best officers, though they come well recommended. In one part of Massachusetts we had a medical officer who had been connected with one of the best hospitals in New England. He took charge of between 200 and 300 patients. He was supposed to have a thorough medical knowledge in relation to the insane. He took the insane women who refused to work and locked them up for five or six weeks at a time, and one particular woman that I knew well, and who is living at this time in the Northampton hospital, he locked up as he afterwards said, for several weeks in a stone cell with no stove, and the bed taken out during the daytime, and she spent at least seven weeks in that way by the the order of that medical officer, who was recommended to us by one of the best medical superintendents in New England.

GOVERNOR JEROME, Michigan: We are warring on that kind of people.

MR. SANBORN: Yes, but it shows that you can't rely on medical recommendations; you have got to rely on what a man is and does. We got rid of him. He was so ignorant as to assure a legislative committee investigating these things that the chronic insane died faster than the recent insane. I mention this only to show how unreasonable he was.

WM. H. NEFF, Ohio: I am willing that my most excellent friends, Mr. Giles and Prof. Wright, and the members of this conference shall be the judges; that you have not a poorhouse in the state of Wisconsin that will compare in any one respect with that of Hamilton county, Ohio. We have a large, commodious building which cost some $25,000, and everything has been done that could be done for the comfort and welfare of the inmates. The superintendent is an excellent man, as good looking almost as though he had been born in Wisconsin, [laughter], and his wife is a lady everyway worthy of him. I was there in consultation with him, and we came to the conclusion that the thirty insane, out of the 250 inmates altogether, made more trouble than all the others put together. They can't care for them properly. We decided that it was better to have them separated. The cost of each of the inmates is $122 for last year; the year before it was $138. We now propose to erect at a cost of about $40,000, a building that will accommodate 200, where they can have all the benefits of the best medical supervision, and be provided with gas, water, light, and everything else, and you can't surpass that in any county poorhouse that I know of.

THE PRESIDENT: You are mistaken if you have the idea that these classes are together in our county institutions. We have them separate. The insane don't associate with the paupers. But the state of Wisconsin will make a report this afternoon through its secretary Prof. Wright.

REPORT OF NEW JERSEY.

BY SAMUEL ALLINSON AND THE OTHER DELEGATES.

The legislature of New Jersey at its late session, by a joint resolution authorized the governor to apopoint one delegate each from among the officers or managers of the State Prison, the State Reform School for Boys, the Industrial School for Girls, and the State Lunatic Asylums of Trenton and Morristown, to attend and represent the state at the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, to be held at Madison, Wisconsin, in the summer of 1882. Governor Ludlow accordingly made the appointments, and the five delegates, responding to the call, are in attendance at the conference.

LUNATIC ASYLUM AT TRENTON.

Of the New Jersey State Lunatic Asylum, one of the institutions designated in the above resolution, it may be proper briefly to state that it was founded in 1845. The attention of the citizens of the state was first called to the condition of the insane, and the necessity of providing an asylum for their treatment by Dr. Lyndon A. Smith, of Newark, in an address before the State Medical Society, as early as 1837. No definite action was taken, however, until the year 1844, when Miss D. L. Dix visited the various alms-houses and jails throughout the state, and learned by personal inspection the wretched condition of the insane confined in these places. In a memorial to the legislature in 1845, she gave in detail an account of her observations as to the condition and treatment of this unfortunate class, and urgently recommended that body to make some arrangement for their humane care. The legislature accordingly, in the same year, appointed commissioners to select a suitable site, and made an appropriation of $10,000 to purchase the same, and one of $25,000 toward the erection of the buildings. The building was commenced in 1845. The asylum is admirably situated, about two miles northwest of the city of Trenton, on an elevation on the bank of the Delaware river. It is constructed of red sandstone, found in the immediate vicinity, and is built on what is commonly known as the Kirkbride plan. The first patient was received for treatment in May, 1848. Since that time there has been received into the institution, to August 1, 1882, 5,954—2,899 men, and 3,055 women. Discharged recovered, 2,006. There remains, August 1, 1882, under care in the asylum, 325 men and 288 women—total 613.

Total appropriations from the state for main building, grounds, etc., $490,000. No appropriation from legislature in nine years. Farm belonging to asylum 179 acres, and a tract

of about same size has been rented for past twelve years. The institution has a valuable water power and has grist mill for its own purposes. Advantage is taken of this power for the purpose of pumping the water of a noble spring into the dome of main building, from whence it is conveyed by pipes to the various parts of the asylum; about 70,000 gallons daily.

MORRIS PLAINS ASYLUM.

The institution at Trenton proving entirely insufficient to meet the demands of the state, in 1872 the legislature made arrangements for a second asylum, which was opened for patients in 1876. For admirable plan, and perfection of detail it is perhaps without its equal. Many citizens thought this honor dearly purchased by the state at an expense of two and a half millions of dollars, but they had the satisfaction of knowing that this great amount of public treasure was honestly disbursed.

The building is constructed of syenitic granite from a large quarry on the place. The size of the farm is 400 acres. The capacity of the building is for about 1,000 inmates. Present number 670.

The building and its appendages are amply supplied with water furnished by springs on the premises and carried to a reservoir (one hundred feet above the roof) containing six millions of gallons, thus amply securing an abundant supply at all times. The ventilation of the house is perfect, top and bottom in the wards and dormitories, and from all the closets and urinals the draft is downward. All sewage is utilized, the liquid portion being used by itself, thus rendering the solid portion easily transported and ready for use on the land. The cottage system now so much insisted on and proved so valuable is carried out by a peculiar method of construction, each wing being connected by a covered passage way, thus completely isolating the various forms of insanity, and furnishing to each unobstructed light and air.

New Jersey has also four county asylums, separate buildings on the respective almshouse properties, and in them are accommodated at present about 550 insane, making an aggregate of about 1,850 in the state institutions. The state allows to the counties $1.00 per week for each insane patient supported by them, whether in state or county asylum.

STATE PRISON.

About fifty years ago the attention of philanthropists in the middle states was directed to the subject of improved prison discipline and what was called the solitary system of Pennsylvania was determined upon by the legislature of New Jersey for the new prison then about to be erected at Trenton; 192

cells were accordingly built sufficiently large for the carrying on of weaving and other kinds of labor. But in a few years the system fell into disrepute with medical men and with our lawmakers. When it became necessary therefore to enlarge the accommodation for convicts, smaller cells and congregate workshops were built, and the solitary system was abandoned. It should however be admitted in speaking of this abandonment, that our convicts never received from regular philanthropic visitors that persistent christian care and personal oversight which has been so marked a feature of the treatment of the inmates in the eastern penitentiary, and which only a large city like Philadelphia could give in such amount.

During the fiscal year ending November 1, 1881, the average number of convicts in the New Jersey state prison was 803, the largest number at any time having been 849. Of these 778 were males and 128 females; the latter in apartments entirely separated from the main prison and under the care of judicious female officers.

The number of convicts from 18 to 30 years of age is 462, and those on first commitment 642. Many of these young convicts confined for their first offense ought for their own sake and that of the state, to be spared from the degradation and associations of the penitentiary. But New Jersey has yet no house of correction or intermediate prison, and the state prison is far preferable for them to the county jails. In the latter no steady employment seems possible, and mutual corruption of the inmates, in their unrestricted intercourse and enforced idleness, is almost certain.

The convicts are employed in various industries:

100 men work at making shoes	60 cents per day.
80 men work at laundry work	50 cents per day.
80 men work at making shirts	50 cents per day.
20 men work at making collars	50 cents per day.
20 men work at making boxes	50 cents per day.
40 men work at making whips	50 cents per day.

To satisfy the persistent demands of a class of labor reforms, not more than 100 convicts are allowed by law to be employed in one branch of industry, a restriction which has seriously affected the finances of the prison.

By a commutation law passed a number of years ago, a deduction of five days per month is allowed for continuous good behavior. When 12 successive months have been gained, an additional day per month is allowed. For the second year 7 days; and an added day for successive years. But this good time is revocable for misconduct. The law has worked well in promoting the discipline of the prison.

In 1881 the cost of maintenance, repairs and salaries amounted to $119,590.68. Amount of earnings, $50,702.74.

THE REFORM SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

In 1850, through the persistent efforts of the New Jersey Prison Association and some of the prominent judges of our criminal courts, a law was passed to establish a House of Refuge for young criminals, but from the unwise course of a majority of the building commissioners, and the unhappy drifting of the whole matter into the arena of political strife, in two years the project was abandoned, the contracts were cancelled, and the site and material sold by order of the legislature. This was a great blow to the friends of humanity, but subsequent events proved that it was a blessing in disguise. The contemplated refuge would have been a strong prison, and the state would have been committed to the close congregate system. As years passed on, good men hopelessly mourned over children in the common jails, and there seemed no remedy. But in 1864 Gov. Parker, in his annual message, called the attention of the legislature to the great need of some provision other than the common jail for the treatment of juvenile offenders, and the Reform School for Boys was the result. It was opened for pupils in 1867, and has since that time pursued its quiet course, turning, as we trust, hundreds of children into the paths of virtue and good citizenship.

The institution is located at Jamesburg, near the center of the state, on a farm of nearly 500 acres. The family system of separate homes containing about 50 boys each was adopted, though for convenience there is a common dining hall for the whole school. There are now four of these family houses, and a building for two additional families is about to be erected.

The labors of the farm, the care of stock too, are mainly performed by the boys, and a brick yard where bricks and draining tiles are made, employs when in operation 20 to 25 boys. The clothing is also made by some of their number under a competent tailoress. The principal industry however is that of making and laundrying shirts for a New York firm. The smaller boys soon learn to attend to the steam power sewing machines, and become adroit workers. The larger boys do the ironing, which requires considerable strength and muscle.

The boys labor for seven hours per day, and the effort of the excellent superintendent is to induce habits of active industry, and in varied forms, rather than to attempt giving life long occupations.* Employment is needed adapted to their strength but which can be properly and fully supervised. This when well performed is recognized and rewarded. $847.98 was paid to the boys in 1881 for over-work done in the regular hours of

* The knowledge and skill acquired in the laundry room have been turned to good account by some of our pupils, who after leaving the institution have received steady employment at $2.00 per day.

labor. The school room has its important duty, and three hours per day are devoted to study.

The evening family collections in the separate homes, where the conduct records are made, reproof or encouragement administered, and the grades determined, are felt to be of great importance in the parental discipline of the school.

Of the history of our boys subsequent to their leaving the institution, we are not able to definitely speak, though a very large proportion are doing well. The trustees are inaugurating measures for a fuller visitation of them than has yet been effected.

The number now in the school is 305. The annual cost per capita $103,54. Received for labor during the year, $15,492.16.

THE GIRLS' INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL.

The citizens of one of the large manufacturing towns of New Jersey were shocked about eighteen years ago, by the announcement that a lovely two year old child of respectable parents had been found murdered. A girl of 10 or 11 years of age, longing for the dainty clothing of the child to attire her own little sister, had enticed it into a yard, stripped and thrown it down an open well. She was tried, convicted of murder in the second degree, and sentenced to ten years imprisonment in the state penitentiary.

In a short time the second daughter, in the process of education, passed unheeded through a large hardware store with her basket of matches, and finding no one in the office and the burglar proof safe open, entered and took $165 in money and some valuable papers. She was traced, detected, and sentenced to eighteen months imprisonment in Newark jail, which was erroneously supposed to be under specially reformatory influences. She was here thrown into companionship far worse than her own county jail, and graduated to such a life as might have been anticipated.

In due time, a third daughter of less than nine years appeared upon the stage. Her father, working a few miles out of town, stopped one evening at a store, and on going out it was observed, seemed to fumble clumsily at the door. When it was closed for the night the key was missing and had to be replaced. The proprietor, leaving the store at noon the next day, locked it, but on his return saw the lost key lying near the door which had been opened, and on entering found that he had been robbed of more than $1,000 in money and of two $500 U. S. bonds. Inquiries were at once set on foot, and a car conductor remembered that a shabbily dressed little girl had given him a $5.00 note to pay the fare of a few cents demanded for passage. *She had become wealthy*, and was disinclined to repeat her walk of the morning. The police found the beggar children of the

neighborhood had been liberally treated by our heroine to dolls and candies. The parents and older brother being arrested as accomplices, the mother excused her possession of the pocket book with upward of $200, on the plea that the daughter assured her she had found it.* The father denied all knowledge of the matter, but a part of the money was found upon him, and his previous complicity being proved, he was sent to the state prison. The little girl had acted her part adroitly, but on being arrested and questioned, confessed the robbery and told the officer that not knowing their value she had thrown the U. S. bonds under the railway depot, where they were found. She was of course convicted; but the humane judge could not bear to carry out the law, so suspended sentence, and a suitable home was sought. But the evil seed has been sown and matured, and has since brought forth its abundant fruitage.

A fourth daughter has maintained her lineage by a course of theft which has made her familiar with court dock and prison cell.

Of two sons the oldest, repeatedly imprisoned, was one night crushed between two cars in a supposed attempt at robbery, and the younger, a mere boy, shrewd and untruthful, was arrested in a most unhopeful career of beggary and stealth by an illness terminating in death.

It is safe to say that no year has passed since 1864 that has not witnessed the incarceration of some members of the family for grand and petit larceny, for violent assault, or for disorderly conduct. Four or five of them have been imprisoned at one time. The records of our courts in their continuous treatment of them show the utter futility of any expectation of reform in such cases under the sterotyped discipline of police officers and turnkeys.

Who can tell the cost of such a family to a community? An approximate estimate may be made of the amount of their larcenies and the expenses of criminal prosecution and imprisonment, but who can measure the woes entailed upon their own and other households through the evil influences of their commission of crime and propagation of vice?

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* The court was under the impression that the storekeeper had made an error in his estimate of the money in his desk, as so small a part could be traced by the efficient police. But years afterward it was found that the mother had secreted a very considerable sum in a box kept in the house of a friend, from which she drew for the support of the family when other means failed. At length her last $200.00 was stolen from her, and suspecting her own son, he was on her sworn statement arrested and kept for some months in prison for trial. On the opening of the county court, however, she changed her plan and went before the grand jury charging two other women with taking it whilst she slept. The statement was discredited, the only certainty being that her ill gotten gains were gone.

These cases and some others of girls reared in crime from childhood, where the necessity of removing them from parental influence was manifest, induced the legislature of New Jersey in 1871, to establish the Industrial School for Girls. Though the number of inmates has never been large, the greatest having been 44, yet the results of the treatment under a conscientious and judicious matron have been a perpetual encouragement to continued effort. Many of the graduates have gone out to service and have conducted well. Some of them have become respected heads of families. The institution is on a farm of about 80 acres, a mile and a half from Trenton, and near the lunatic asylum. A neat brick building was erected at a cost of $24,000. There the girls are trained in the various duties of housekeeping, successively taking their share for some weeks at a time in the different departments. They are also taught plain sewing and the use of the sewing machine, which holds so useful a place in nearly every household. Several hours per day are devoted to the school room under an efficient teacher, and solid improvement is manifestly made. But the most important instruction is that in morals and religion under the teaching of the matron, where the varied duties of life are shown to flow from the Divine law. It was after listening to a lesson of this kind at the school, adapted to the practical wants of daily life, that a late governor of the state very feelingly endorsed such application of the scriptures and commended their careful study. "I wish you" said he, addressing the girls, "to understand the value of your opportunities and of your course of training; that they are better than those of a large majority of the children of the well-to-do families of the state."

REPORT OF CONNECTICUT.

BY THE STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

The State Board of Charities of Connecticut is not clothed with executive authority, nor has it any special supervision over any of the institutions of the state. Its functions are limited to the inspection and examination of all charitable and penal institutions of the state, and authority to correct any abuses found to exist. The management and control of all the benevolent and correctional institutions devolves upon their several boards of directors and trustees. Hence statistics or statements of finances are not required or expected as in the states where the duties of administration are required of similar boards.

The institutions which are solely maintained by the state are; the Connecticut Hospital for the Insane, at Middletown; the State Poorhouse, at Tariffville; the State Prison, at Weathersfield, and the State Reform School at Meriden.

The semi-state institutions, or those sustained by a union of public and private charity are: The Retreat for the Insane, at Hartford; the Retreat of Dr. Buel, at Litchfield; Dr. Hallock's Home, at Cromwell; the Hartford Hospital, at Hartford; the Connecticut State Hospital, at New Haven; the School for Imbeciles, at Lakeville. The eleven County Jails, the Police Stations, and the Poorhouses of the towns, are all subject to the inspection of the Board of Charities.

The hospital for the insane at Middletown is the largest and most important charitable institution in the state. Its inmates now number about 750 males and females, nearly equal in number. The cost of the main building together with the new annex is $800,000. The new hospital, or annex, consists of three separate buildings, a central structure and two pavilions. The equipment and opening of this hospital is an event of the past year.

The object in erecting separate buildings is the proper classification of the insane, which is an important aid to treatment; that those whose character and fitness for advantageous association may be selected to occupy the same building. Two hundred and fifty of the quiet chronic class are placed in the new annex. The hospital as a whole, in its plan of architecture, equipment, water supply and ventilation, is well adapted to the various purposes for which it is designed. A farm of four hundred acres is attached to the hospital, and cultivated to a great extent by the inmates.

It is one of the chief aims of Dr. Shaw (the superintendent), that the patients who are able and willing, shall be furnished with employment, hence the work of the garden and adornment of the beautiful grounds; also the useful labor upon the well cultivated farm is performed, mainly, by patients of the hospital.

The beautiful retreat for the insane at Hartford, under the superintendence of Dr. H. P. Stearns, containing 150 inmates, was established by private bequests, legacies and gifts, and is sustained chiefly by payment for board and care by the inmates. Several of the patients, who are persons of ample means, occupy appartments furnished with elegance at their own expense. Here may be observed the experiment afforded by a beautiful, healthful location, the most approved structures, expensive and tasteful surroundings, with an experienced and skillful superintendent and chosen asistants, and every known remedy for the promotion of the comfort and restoration of the mental and physical condition of the afflicted inmates. It is a satisfaction to witness the care which affection has called forth to alleviate misfortune, though the proportion of recoveries does not exceed that of the ordinary hospitals.

The retreat of Dr. Buel, at Litchfield, is conducted on the cottage system. The inmates number 23. The patients are all

of a mild chronic character, none are strictly confined to the dwellings or premises, much liberty is allowed, they may be occupied by labor in the garden or on the farm, or walking in the town; and the treatment often leads to favorable results.

Dr. Hallock's Retreat, at Cromwell, containing 20 patients, is of a similar character with Dr. Buel's Retreat, the patients receiving special private care.

The Hartford Hospital, at Hartford, and the General Hospital Society, at New Haven, are large and well conducted institutions, maintained by a union of public and private charity. In both are training schools for nurses, which are of essential benefit to the hospitals and the communities.

A School for Imbeciles at Lakeville, contains 85 inmates. About half of them are susceptible of school instruction, and half are too feeble for any education or instruction in useful employment.

By the system of instruction practiced at Lakeville, many of the feeble minded children acquire a fair rudimentary education fitting them for usefulness in life.

The State Prison at Weathersfield, now contains 215 inmates, showing a decrease of 35 during the past year. The general expenses of the prison are paid by the profits on the labor of the prisoners. About $50,000 has been expended in repairs and improvements upon the building, within the past two years, yet the old structure has become so much impaired by the action of time, that it is conceded the interests of the state require a new prison in a more favorable site.

The present management and discipline is worthy of commendation, though punishments are inflicted in extreme cases. A particular record is kept, showing its cause, mode and degree. It is the aim of Mr. Sargent (the warden), to maintain discipline by means of rewards, and restraining influence. And from the examinations of the prison, at unexpected intervals, together with the private interviews had with the prisoners, the Board of Charities is prepared to state that the mild but firm methods of discipline practiced by the present warden, are effective in producing obedience and good order, and are preventive of the dissatisfaction, violence, and attempts at escape, which were so usual under former management.

The State Poorhouse, at Tariffville, is maintained for the reception of such homeless wanderers as come into the state, and are without capacity for self support. There are about 40 inmates supported by the state, consisting of the poorest, weakest, and most abject class of human beings. Complaints have been made by casual visitors respecting their condition, and members of the board have visited the place with the view to rectify any wrong that might appear, but have found that miserable and repulsive as they are in personal appearance, they are provided with sufficient food, clothing and warmth,

their apartments and surroundings, though plain, are cleanly, and as we have been unable to obtain any expression of complaint from the inmates, they consequently are permitted to remain, with the conclusion that the accommodations though much inferior to which might be desired by persons in ordinary circumstances, are equal to their necessities and merits.

Two of the most important and beneficial institutions of our state are the Industrial School for Girls at Middletown, and the Reform School for Boys, at Meriden. They are now both conducted upon the family or cottage plan.

The Industrial School for Girls, under the superintendence of Mr. and Mrs. C. H. Bond, was founded by liberal gifts from individuals, and appropriations from the state treasury. Four cottages, each for the accommodation of forty girls, were built by four different persons. The fifth, just finished, was built at the expense of the state, and is in process of equipment for occupancy. The opening of this fifth home for the school is an important event in this year's history. It is to be occupied by forty girls of the more advanced in age. The school now numbers 180. The girls are classified in the several cottages, according to age, character and merit.

It is the custom of the board of charities to learn from the scholars (by private inquiries) as much as possible of their real condition in the schools. We find the almost universal testimony is of thankfulness for the benefits received at the school. This is a favorite object of charity from individuals in the state, and such is the appreciation of its value and usefulness, that state aid has been promptly extended in response to every request.

Of the Reform School for Boys, at Middletown, the only change of importance in this school during the past year, is the opening and occupancy of the new annex, or family cottage, with the experiment of placing 50 boys in a separate building, giving them freedom from the restraints and confinements usual in reform schools. It is gratifying to notice a marked improvement in contrast with the appearance of congregate departments.

The number of boys in the entire school is 380. The recent change in the law of committal has had a beneficial result, though boys between the ages of seven and sixteen may be detained until twenty-one years of age unless sooner reformed. By the present rules of the school, a boy by good conduct can earn a standing which will entitle him to an honorable discharge in one year.

The Board of Charities has urged the propriety of having the inmates of this, and all other institutions where labor is performed, employed in such work as will afford opportunities of gaining a livelihood after they leave.

The work of the Board during the past year has been direct-

ed more particularly towards correcting abuses existing in the jails and poor-houses of the state.

The Board, upon visiting the jails, found that five of the eleven jails were deficient in what are termed two of the essential elements required in the care of a jail — employment and separation of inmates. Two of the five have introduced a system of industry, and established proper rules preventing promiscuous intercourse of prisoners. The other three it is expected will soon provide employment, and adopt a better system of discipline.

The last legislature passed a bill providing for a commission to inquire into the numbers and condition of neglected and abused or dependent children, who are, or should be, under state or town care, and report to the next general assembly, statistics and suggestions. The bill was introduced in order that the public may be informed and prepared to establish measures of sound legislation upon the subject.

A bill was presented to the legislature at the instance of the Board of Charities, providing that no child between the ages of six and sixteen years, shall be sent to the almshouse for support, and making it the duty of the selectmen to have them supported in orphan asylums or suitable institutions, or respectable families. This bill did not pass, but we presume the report of the commission before mentioned will be a basis of some measure for rescuing dependent children from a life of vice and crime.

The practice of committing pauper children to the debasing influences of almshouses is an evil which the Board of Charities is taking measures to have discontinued. By its influence many have already been removed from almshouses and placed in families or orphan asylums.

REPORT OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

BY REV. A. FLORIDUS STEELE.

Having been prevented by sickness from reporting in person on the proper day, I present the following notes for insertion in the printed record of this Conference. Though I am more or less acquainted with all the institutions named, I very recently visited two of them, the Washington Asylum and the Industrial Home, and was prepared to give quite a full verbal account of their present condition.

The District of Columbia supports a Reform School for Boys, and the institution called the Washington Asylum, which includes an almshouse, workhouse and hospital. These are located on two farms on the outskirts of Washington. A few inmates are maintained at a place once known as the Georgetown Alms-

house, to aid in keeping the place in order; but the building and grounds are given over to the Industrial Home School, for boys and girls.

The daily average number of inmates in the almshouse of the Washington Asylum is 115; in the workhouse, 125; in the hospital, 50. The expense of the institution last year was about $50,000. The amount expended on the Reform School for the year was $29,081.

The District has for a few years past supported as many as 300 to 350 indigent insane, at the U. S. Government Hospital for the Insane, at an annual cost of $40,000.

Provisions, fuel and medicines are distributed on a carefully discriminating plan, through the police, appointed physicians, and a free dispensary, to the worthy poor in the District, costing last year $10,642.

Besides the above charities and corrections, the District authorities make payments quite regularly to the following institutions, organized and managed by benevolent citizens: The Industrial Home School before mentioned as occupying the Georgetown Almshouse, the Columbia Hospital for Women and Lying-in Asylum, the Children's Hospital, Saint Ann's Infant Asylum, the National Association for Women and Children, the Woman's Christian Association, and the Little Sisters of the Poor. These payments last year amounted to $64,800. The aggregate sum expended for charities and corrections by the District Commissioners last year was $199,712.60.

The Hospital for the Insane, apart from the income derived from pay-patients, is supported directly by the U. S. government, since the majority of the patients are from the army and navy. The only jail in the District belongs to and is maintained by the United States. Providence Hospital is a large institution in charge of a Roman Catholic sisterhood, open to pay-patients and to charity cases sent there through an order of the Surgeon-General of the army. There are five orphan asylums in Washington, which have rarely — three of them never — received any aid from the District funds.

The Associated Charities of the District of Columbia was organized about a year ago. Of its operations Mrs. Spencer has already given an account to this Conference.

REPORT OF WISCONSIN.

BY PROF. A. O. WRIGHT.

The only changes of importance in Wisconsin worthy of notice are these:

1. The appointment of a single paid board of control of the six state institutions.

2. The inauguration of the county insane asylum system, under effective state supervision.

3. The inauguration of a State Conference of Charities and Corrections.

A little over a year ago the legislature created a single paid board of control of the six state institutions, in consequence of the investigation of one of the hospitals for the insane, and a general dissatisfaction with the management of the other insane hospital. The board began its work a little over a year ago, and I should prefer they should speak for themselves.

We have organized a State Conference of Charities and Corrections which has met two years successively. It is organized substantially on the basis of the National Conference; and is well attended, and has interesting and valuable papers and discussions.

The inauguration of the county insane asylum system under effective state supervision, we think is one of the most important practical experiments in the line of charitable work.

To avoid misconceptions which the debate of night before last shows exist, it is fair to say that the institutions are intended only for those chronic insane who are wholly supported by the public; that they are placed in separate buildings or in separate wings of a building, well warmed, well lighted and well ventilated; that the management must be approved by the state board of charities and reform; must be frequently inspected by a skillful physician, and must report monthly to the board, and that occupation and non-restraint are insisted on by this board and carried out in these institutions. In order to secure proper care of the insane a proper number of attendants of each sex is required of the usual grade of attendants in insane asylums, averaging one to each fifteen insane.

November 15, 1881, this board certified to the secretary of state that five counties had provided proper accommodation for the care of their chronic insane. Since then the buildings in two other counties have been so approved, making seven in all so approved. There are now in process of erection buildings in five other counties, all of which will be completed and approved this fall, making then twelve counties in all. One of these counties was notified by an official letter that while its building was approved, its management was not, and no state

appropriation would be given until the management was completely changed.

Of these twelve counties, one contains no poorhouse, and the insane asylum is therefore an independent institution, with a capacity for fifty inmates. In three others the buildings are independent institutions with separate buildings and kitchens, but located upon the poor farm. These are to contain respectively 110, 90 and 60 inmates, and are solid brick buildings, constructed on the most approved plans. In the other counties with one exception, where a wing of the poorhouse is set apart, the inmates occupy separate and comfortable buildings, but go to the dining rooms of the poorhouse for their meals. In no instance are they fed in their rooms or in the hall connected with them.

Milwaukee County Insane Asylum was organized under another law, and is conducted and managed upon the plan of the best state hospitals for the insane, and contains all the insane of Milwaukee county, both acute and chronic, as well as several United States soldiers boarded them by the general government. Its capacity is about 300.

For the management of these institutions I wish to present a summary of the monthly reports for the month of July, in the six institutions now approved by the board and in actual operation.

Total number of inmates	195
Number of inmates having regular employment	88
Number under restraint of any kind for any length of time during the month	8
Number in restraint constantly	2
Number in restraint for brief periods	5

The following is a detailed statement of the same by institutions:

	No. inmates.	No. employ'd	No. restrained.	No. days restrained.
Rock county asylum	35	19	4	12½
Walworth county asylum	35	21	0	0
Brown county asylum	25	14	0	0
Jefferson county asylum	31	10	0	0
Winnebago county asylum	30	12	3	*1 †2
Sheboygan county asylum	39	12	1	25
	195	88	8	

*1. Muff, at night. †2. Constantly.

In three of the counties there was no restraint whatever, and nearly all the restraint was in one institution, which is under

the shadow of a state institution for the insane, where they have procured muffs and crib beds. In that institution we have reduced the amount of restraint by personal visits and remonstrance, and expect to be able soon to stop it altogether.

The cost of maintenance of these institutions, reckoned on the usual per capita basis, will probably be about $2.00 a week.

In regard to the management of these institutions we can speak pretty confidently, because this board has frequently visited them unannounced, and know how they are carried on. We know that the buildings and the persons of the insane are scrupulously clean; that their food is ample in quantity and good in quality, being usually the same which their attendants and the overseer's family have; that inmates frequently work on the farm and around the buildings without a guard, and work faithfully, and that the overseer and his wife in all cases take an individual interest in the inmates, and give them moral treatment to rouse their dormant faculties and train their wayward propensities, and make them feel that they have friends. We know from free conversaton with the inmates that there is only one who wishes to be removed, and she does not wish to go back to the state institution, from which she came, but to another county insane asylum not yet completed; and that complaints from inmates in regard to their treatment are trivial, although they have full opportunity to make them.

We believe in the value of this plan of caring for the chronic insane who are wholly supported by the public. We do not wish to make extravagant claims for it. Like all human plans, it is liable to imperfections in its conception and execution, but we claim that it is no more liable to abuse, if kept under the conditions under which it is kept here, than any other human institution. The essential condition is, that the county institutions be effectively supervised by some state authority which has the power of rewards and punishments.

We are aware that this is a pioneer movement in this line, and that therefore we must endure the penalties of pioneers in all philanthropic movements, of being misunderstood and assailed by some who are committed to other methods. We expect, however, that all intelligent and fair-minded persons will welcome this as an experiment in a new direction, to solve one of the great questions of philanthropy. And we invite all the members of this Conference, and especially the State Boards of Charities of the various states, to visit these institutions for themselves, and to satisfy themselves from actual observation as to the practical workings of this system.

Prof. A. O. Wright: The cost of these buildings is about $300 for each occupant. The Dodge county asylum cost about $28,000 for building and the heating apparatus, and will accommodate about ninety inmates.

Dr. David Rogers, New York: I am much pleased with this report of Wisconsin. I am astonished at one form of the movement in which this state seems to be engaged, in that they have taken this method of restraint which is now condemned, and which I now most emphatically condemn, that of the use of cribs. I would not remain an hour in an institution where they are used, I am so much opposed to them.

The President: The gentlemen misapprehends the purport of the paper. He might have said under the shadow of one of these great institutions — right in sight of its door, I may say that this institution exists. They have come to us as an heir-loom. We condem them and we have got rid of most of them; still we have some of them, but we intend to get rid of them altogether.

Prof. A. O. Wright, Wisconsin: I wish to tell the exact truth. I put forward the best and a little of the worst. That is one of the things we have to contend against, that we have to fight against, and that is the only case of that kind at all. The single crib bed has by our order already been disused; although crib beds are used in both our state institutions. None are now in use in any of our county asylums.

H. H. Giles, Wisconsin: I intended to call up the paper of Mr. Watkins and get some expression about it. He closes a very admirable paper by his allusion to our common school system in relation to the desirability and necessity of teaching the useful arts and trades in the schools of the land. I have not felt for some years like commending very highly the educational systems of the country. Some two or three years ago I alluded to this subject in conversation with one of the leading educators of the state, and he admitted it to be true. Take this city of Madison. We pride ourselves here in regard to our educational institutions. We have a State University, a high school, five ward schools and our private schools. It seems to be the ambition of the professors, teachers, and those interested, to — well — to stuff pupils with facts. We become learned in many things, but I don't know of any school, except the state university, which I am glad to know is making its instruction as practical as any of the institutions of the land, that are doing

anything in this direction. In our high schools, in our ward schools, and our common schools, I think very little attention is paid to the practical business of life, and I think in this respect the schools of Madison are as well adapted to giving a practical education as those of any state. There seems to be a great want in this direction, and I hope the members of the convention will call to mind the most admirable conclusions of the paper of Mr. Watkins, and let us not only think of it, but try and interest the people with whom we associate and aid in carrying out some of those suggestions.

Bishop Robertson, Missouri: In regard to the relation of our common school system and its relation to practical education, it is an interesting question. Within two or three years past in St. Louis, some very practical persons, gentlemen of wealth, organized and have put in operation a manual training school, intended to supplement the training of the head and give a thorough and technical knowledge of the arts and manufactures, and for that purpose they have put up at a cost, I suppose, first and last, of about $100,000, a very large building, and thoroughly equipped with all the best apparatus, and for two years now it has been in operation, and persons of the gentlest families and others, are found there wearing their aprons and hard at work. There is mingled the study and the application of principles, and it is going to result in great good. They take a great interest in their studies and in this work, and learn to honor the labor of their hands, and if this conference ever comes to St. Louis, as it may, this is one of the things I imagine you would like to study.

This work of ours is already having its influence on others. A number of wealthy men in Chicago are patterning from us, and have subscribed large sums of money for the same purpose. It leads in a direction which shows that the country is not to go on without honoring manual labor, and that this subject is being brought to the attention of those who lead the public opinion and sentiment of the country.

J. H. Mills, of North Carolina, being called upon to make some remarks in regard to the care of infant children, said: I

have made some experiments, and have had a good deal of experience. I have found that milk of cows most always kills young children. I think that of those who are nourished by cow's milk about 90 per cent. die. That is my experience. The remedy is to raise them on goat's milk, and my experience with that is that about 90 per cent. of them will live. I have taken a considerable number of children whom the doctors said would certainly die, and with one single exception they were raised. I think the proof is sufficient to say that you can take little infants all over the land and give them goat's milk, and they will live. I don't know how it is, but if you drink cow's milk and eat black cherries, you will die within twenty-four hours; it is so also with some kinds of fish. It certainly happens, but I don't know why. So you kill children when you feed them on cow's milk, and I have induced a considerable number to abandon the use of cow's milk, though I keep one on my farm and one on the hospital farm. In Italy there are places where large numbers of people in poor health go to drink goat's milk and they almost always get fat before they go home. This idea is not original with me, for it has been handed down to us from the days of King Solomon.

Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York, addressed the Conference upon the subject of the "Care of the Chronic Pauper Insane," and in opposition to the county system recently adopted by Wisconsin, as set forth in the paper of Mr. Giles. He said:

The policy of New York in regard to its chronic insane, was asserted in the establishment of the Willard Asylum, in 1865. This had for its object the relief of the insane then in poor-houses and ill-conditioned county asylums, and, thus far, its aims and purposes have been steadily carried out. The institution has now reached a capacity for about 1,700 patients, and possesses the requisite conveniences and appliances for their proper oversight, treatment and care. In 1881 this state opened another asylum for 350 insane, at Binghamton. Its room is already nearly all taken, and its accommodations will probably soon be extended and enlarged by the erection of detached buildings upon the general plan of the Willard Asylum. The

charge to the counties for patients in these institutions is fixed by the statute at the actual cost of their maintenance and care. This has varied at the Willard Asylum at from $2.40 to $2.75 per week for each person. The weekly per capita rate, the present year, in both of these institutions, is $2.65. This is generally satisfactory with local authorities, and if these institutions afforded sufficient room it is believed that most of the counties, except those having large numbers of chronic insane, would soon abandon the county system, and place this class wholly under the protecting care of the state.

Continuing, DR. HOYT said:

It is not my purpose here to depict the horrors of the insane in poorhouses, as they existed in New York twenty or thirty years ago. These have become a matter of official record in the report of Mrs. Dix, in 1846; in a report of a committee of the state senate, in 1854; in the report of Dr. Willard, Secretary of the State Medical Society, in 1865, and in the report of the State Board of Charities of 1868. The evils of county care of the insane, as set forth in these various reports, have largely passed away, and it is not probable that they will soon again occur, to so great an extent in this or any other country. The system, however, under the most favorable circumstances, is radically defective, and wherever adopted it is quite certain in the end to prove disastrous to the best interests and welfare of the insane. From an extended and careful examination of the subject in all its bearings, the New York State Board early reached the conclusion that the care of the chronic pauper insane could be better and more economically attained in state institutions than in institutions managed and controlled by counties. Its reasons in support of this conclusion, summed up in its annual report to the legislature of 1881, so thoroughly cover the whole subject as to warrant their being here given in full:

1. In the erection of buildings for the chronic insane by the state, a much larger number may be provided for in one institution than in the case of a single county; fewer administrative apartments proportionately are required, and a lower per capita expenditure for shelter may therefore be attained.

2. The supervision of a large number of chronic insane under one management, by the state, is less expensive than when such insane are diffused in numerous county institutions.

3. The supplies, clothing, etc., for the chronic insane in state institutions may be purchased in large quantities, and wholesale prices be secured; whereas, in county institutions the needs in this direction are so limited that retail prices must needs be paid for these articles.

4. The standard of care for the chronic insane in state institutions is based upon their real needs, and it is fixed and stable; in county institutions it is regulated in accordance with the views of the officer who, for the time being, may be in charge, and it is therefore liable to frequent changes and interruptions.

5. In the state institutions the chronic insane may be classified so as to properly meet their varied conditions, and thus promote cleanliness and good order, and secure the enforcement of wholesome rules and regulations; in the county institutions little or no classification can be effected, and the intercourse of the noisy and disturbed with the quiet and well-behaved engenders violence, confusion and disorder.

6. The chronic insane in the state institutions are under the oversight and care of medical officers, selected because of their familiarity with the disease, and the highest ratio of recoveries and improvements is likely to be secured; in the country institutions the medical attendant generally visits the insane only at stated intervals, and large curative results cannot therefore be anticipated.

7. In the state institutions the chronic insane are safely sheltered and secured against bodily harm, and society is protected from their intrusions; in the county institutions the shelter is often insecure, and the community at all times is liable to be disturbed by their inroads.

8. In providing for the chronic insane, the state relieves the counties of the most troublesome and expensive class of dependents, and thereby enables the proper county officers to devote their time and attention to dealing more effectually and economically with the other varied classes of public burdens.

In conclusion, Dr. Hoyt said, that some of the advantages of state institutions might be secured in counties having large numbers of chronic insane, by the erection of suitable buildings wholly distinct from the poorhouse, and placing them under the control of non-partizan boards, with a resident medical officer.

It was not possible, in his opinion, for various reasons, to effect any saving to the counties by this course, if a proper standard of care be maintained. The number of such insane in most counties, however, is too small to warrant this expenditure, and the accommodations for this class are therefore made in buildings connected with the county poorhouse. This is the policy of the recent law of Wisconsin, as outlined and recommended in the paper of Mr. Giles. The insane will consequently come under the immediate supervision and control of the officers controlling and managing the poorhouses, and the policy in regard to them, notwithstanding the supervision of the State Board, will universally be varying and unstable, and partake more or less of the nature of those institutions.

For these reasons he was opposed to the proposed plan, and he feared that in the end it would prove unsatisfactory, and become the source of regret. In his judgment it would have been much better and more economical had the state extended its accommodations for the insane in connection with its existing asylums, leaving the counties, as heretofore, to deal only with its other and less difficult classes of dependents.

The Conference then adjourned till evening.

TENTH SESSION.

THURSDAY EVENING, Aug. 10, 1882.

The Committee on Building Plans for Public Institutions having the floor for this session, presented their report, together with a paper by Dr. Walter Channing upon Building Plans for a Criminal Lunatic Asylum. At their request, also, Fred H. Wines gave a written discussion of the subject, in place of a gentleman who had expected to prepare a paper, and Dr. R. S. Dewey, superintendent of the Kankakee State Hospital for the Insane, spoke of the Advantages of the Cottage System for Insane Asylums. All these, with the discussion which followed, are here given.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE ON BUILDING PLANS FOR PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

By R. BRINKERHOFF, of Ohio, Chairman.

As Chairman of your Committee "On Building Plans for Public Institutions," I have not thought it best to attempt an extended report, but have considered that the time allowed for the subject could be best occupied by the presentation of papers by individual members of the committee, and their discussion by the Conference. My report, therefore, is simply a brief introduction to the papers and discussion that are to follow.

In the discussion of questions pertaining to charities and correction, there is no one which demands more careful consideration than that which we now have in hand. In fact, so important is this subject that I am not sure but it would be wise to subdivide it hereafter and appoint at least two separate committees — one upon the construction of buildings for the care and treatment of the criminal classes, and one upon the construction of buildings for the care and treatment of the dependent classes — and appoint upon each experts upon building plans. By experts I do not mean architects, because, as a rule, they know nothing at all of the important requirements of these structures, but I mean those who have had practical experience in their management, or who have carefully thought out the ideas which should control in our public institutions.

In the elaboration of a plan for one of these buildings, of course the first thing to do is to so arrange and combine its various parts as shall best accomplish the ends sought; but in addition we must bear in mind continually that the building and its equipments are to cost money, and that the expenditure must be kept within the bounds of a reasonable economy. In my judgment the greatest hindrance we have to-day in obtaining legislation necessary for expansion and progress in charitable and correctional work is the enormous foolishness and extravagance perpetrated almost everywhere in our public buildings, and especially in buildings for our benevolent institutions.

In building a state house, a court house or a city hall, it may be well enough to have a structure sufficiently grand and imposing to fairly represent the wealth and the power of the people who own them; but when it comes to the construction of buildings for the care of the dependent, defective or criminal classes, there is neither wisdom, good taste or common sense in external magnificence, and it ought to be stopped.

It is all right to make proper provision for these classes, and to have done it is the highest honor of modern civilization, but the architectural extravagance of the process is not to our credit, but the contrary, for it has defeated to a large extent the ends sought. Against this policy the National Conference of Charities and Correction has been unanimously opposed from its first session in 1874 down to the present, and to its influence in a large degree we owe the better public sentiment that begins to prevail. The Conference, however, should not stop here, but continue from year to year a careful consideration of the subject, with a view to a proper direction of the policy of the future. To do this effecctively we must have not only the reports of committees, and papers specially prepared, but we should also have from delegates the advancing experiences of their several localities, and therefore your committee have sought to introduce such topics as would invite the discussion required. In short, what we need most is actual experiences, with suggestions of improvements derived therefrom.

BUILDINGS FOR THE INSANE.

Of all the public buildings under consideration, those constructed for the care of the insane have been the most expensive, and against these, perhaps more than any other, the charge of extravagance will lie. Of these some have cost as high as $5,000.00 for each inmate they can accommodate, and but very few have cost less than $1,000.00 per capita. In Ohio the highest was $1,880.00, and the lowest about $1,500.00. At this cost it is very apparent we cannot afford to provide state care for the increasing numbers of the insane, and the result is they

are crowded into county almshouses and jails, or are wholly excluded from public care.

The number of insane in the United States, as reported and estimated by the last census, is about ninety thousand, which gives a ratio of increase as compared with the previous decade, of nearly one hundred per cent. At this rate of increase, or anything approaching it, if we are to provide for them all, we cannot afford palatial structures of the prevailing pattern. That buildings can be provided at a moderate cost and without any loss of comfort or needed appliances has been amply demonstrated. The best example, perhaps, of this kind of construction is at the Willard Asylum, in the state of New York, where brick buildings, substantially fire-proof, and accommodating two hundred and fifty patients each, have been constructed at a per capita cost of $350.00. At Washington city, the annex to the National Asylum, accommodating two hundred patients, and satisfactory in all its appointments, has been constructed at an aggregate cost of $50,000.00, or $250.00 per capita of inmates. At this asylum still another building, called "the barracks," has been erected, which accommodates sixty patients very comfortably, and cost only $7,500, or $125.00 per capita.

At the State Farm in Rhode Island, by the erection of one-story pavilion buildings of wood, a per capita cost even less than either of these has been attained.

The latest example of economical construction of this class of buildings is at Kankakee, Illinois, and in some respects it is superior to the Willard asylum. The results attained at Kankakee will be fully presented in a paper entitled "Cottages and Detached Wards for the Care of the Insane," prepared by the Rev. Fred. H. Wines, Secretary of the Illinois Board of State Charities.

In Ohio public sentiment is substantially unanimous in requiring the removal of the insane from county infirmaries into state asylums, but it is very clear that we cannot afford this upon the old scale of expenditure for housing, and hence the subject of economy in construction has been forced upon the consideration of our Board of State Charities. The result of our studies has been the emphatic conclusion that for many years to come the buildings necessary for the proper care of all the insane of the state, can be provided by the erection of supplemental buildings on the grounds of our existing state asylums at a cost not exceeding those erected at the Willard Asylum.

In the care of the epileptic insane, however, we recommend a separate asylum, believing not only that a better classification and better care can thus be attained, but also that economy in the construction of buildings, can be secured. Buildings best suited for this class are one-story pavilions with associated dormitories, and need not cost more than $250.00 per capita of inmates.

We also recommend the construction of a separate building on the grounds of the Central Asylum at Columbus, for the care of the criminal insane. The requirements of a building for this class will be presented by Dr. Walter Channing, of Massachusetts.

In all the larger states we believe the classification here indicated would not only be the most economical, but would provide the best care for these several classes. Undoubtedly the tendency of the best experiences of recent years is against the aggregation of large numbers of insane in one place, and the plan proposed may seem objectionable on that account; but it should be remembered that we do not recommend that all these people should be collected in a single building, but in a number of buildings located in different parts of the asylum farm, and some of them need not be larger than an ordinary farm house, and certainly none of these should cost more than an ordinary farm house on a per capita of inmates. This arrangement would make an asylum farm a rural village, under the general government of its Board of Trustees. The superintendent would be the medical director and executive head, with such subordinates as should be needed.

PRISONS.

The subject of prison construction is so large, and so much time and space would be required for its proper presentation that we have not attempted it. We feel, however, that the subject ought to receive from the Conference the attention it deserves. Every class of prisons, from penitentiaries down to common jails and village lock-ups, are as a rule grievously defective, and, with very rare exceptions, they ought to be revolutionized if we are to have such treatment of our criminal classes as the best experience of the world demands.

PENITENTIARIES.

The penitentiaries of the United States with very few exceptions, are constructed for the care of prisoners upon the Auburn, or congregate system, and the best of these in arrangement and construction is in Rhode Island. The prison of the future, however, should be constructed with a view to classification of prisoners upon the Crofton system; of these there are now but two upon this continent, and these are the Reformatory at Elmira, New York, and the prison for women, at Sherburne, Massachusetts.

JAILS.

Our jails are worse than our penitentiaries, and with very rare exceptions are a blot upon our civilization, and a shame to the intelligence of the age. The central, governing idea in the

construction of a jail, should be the separation of prisoners, and the erection of any other is a crime against humanity. At present there are less than a score of jails in the whole United States constructed upon the principle of the separate confinement of prisoners, and in only three of these, so far as I know, is the principle fully enforced; one of these is at Boston, Massachusetts; one in Washington city, where Guiteau was hanged, and one in Mansfield, Ohio.

BUILDING PLANS FOR A CRIMINAL LUNATIC ASYLUM.

By Walter Channing, M. D., Brookline, Mass.

In a paper on "Buildings for Insane Criminals," read before this Conference in 1879, several conclusions were arrived at. Among these were the following which have a reference to the subject in hand: 1st. Insane criminals require buildings for their proper treatment which are in every way entirely separate from prisons. 2d. These buildings should be at some convenient but remote point, on a large and available farm. 3d. They should be hospitals in fact as well as in name, but strongly enough built to hold the most desperate insane criminal. 4th. They should be built, if possible, by the aid of sane convicts, until one or two buildings were completed, when the work should be partially put into the hands of the patients.

To leave these general considerations and go more into detail: The general plan of a criminal lunatic asylum should be very similar to that of an ordinary insane hospital; that is, there should be a central, or administrative building, with wings, semi-detached on either side. This central building should be three stories in height, with a commodious basement, and entered by a front door for the officers and general visitors, and a side door for the patients, employes and business visitors. The first story should contain the superintendent's and the assistant physician's offices, a clerk's office, a general reception room, and a small reception room especially for patients. Connected with the latter, perhaps on the way to the wards, there should be another smaller room, where the patients could be undressed and thoroughly searched for concealed weapons, which they semetimes have about them. A little searching investigation in such a room as this would often be of invaluable service in helping the medical officers to make a proper diagnosis.

The second floor should contain the general living rooms of the physicians. On the third floor the clerk and a portion of the employes should have their rooms. This floor should not be connected with the floors below, but approached by a staircase from the rear of the building. The basement of the central building should contain the officers' kitchen, besides store-

rooms of various kinds. Bath-rooms and water-closets should be placed on the upper floors.

The rear central building should consist of a basement and two stories, and be large and commodious. The basement should contain the general kitchen, store-room, bakery and laundry. The dispensary, sewing room and a few sleeping rooms for employes should be arranged for on the first story, and above on the second floor there should be a hall — a large room to be used for amusements and religious instruction.

The wings should be some distance behind the central building, but connected with it by long corridors. They should be three stories in height, with high basement connecting with the rear central building. The first story should be used for day rooms as much as possible, and perhaps two-thirds of the wings might be so arranged. Some of these rooms could be utilized for dining and work rooms, and in them a large number of patients could be cared for, and more easily than in the night rooms or wards. There should be some small associated dormitories for the demented and harmless patients. The number of patients in the day rooms would vary according to circumstances. I have not thought of day rooms for insane criminals until recently, but they seem to me practicable as an additional means of grading the patients, as well as an additional incentive to self-control, as they could be made pleasanter and more desirable to live in than the close wards. These wards would have to be made stronger than the day rooms, and should not accommodate more than ten or fifteen patients. Scattered about in them there should be a few strong rooms; that is, rooms sheathed in oak with wire screens over the windows.

These rooms, or a small detached building, would be used for feigners and desperadoes. The latter would be the more desirable plan, but might for a few of the first years be too expensive.

Connected with the day room there should be large yards, some of them laid out as vegetable and flower gardens, in which some of the patients could be profitably employed.

One ward on the lower floor could be used for such of the patients as constituted the regular, reliable working force, of whom there would eventually be a large number.

Of course the asylum would of necessity be built with a view to greater security than an ordinary insane hospital, for such an institution is to a certain extent a place of imprisonment; but the day room could have light guards on the windows, and in other ways less attention could be paid to security.

This very brief sketch of a plan for a lunatic asylum represents a building for males. If sufficient female criminals could be brought together requiring treatment at such a hospital, they could have a portion of one wing set apart for them, but much better would be a separate building, as the two sexes should not be allowed to mix in any way.

From the above it will be seen that the criminal lunatic asylum need not essentially differ from the ordinary lunatic hospital, except in regard to greater strength of at least a portion of the building, more strong rooms, more single rooms and smaller wards. The difference will be perhaps more noticeable in the general management of the patients, who will require more attendants, more careful watching, and more rigid discipline than the ordinary insane.

Mr. Wines: Judge Gould had expected to prepare a paper on "Detached Wards for the Care of the Insane," but business has not only prevented him from doing so, but also from attending this Conference. He asked me to take his place, and though I have prepared no report or paper, I will endeavor to make some remarks off-hand upon this subject. We have with us Dr. Dewey, the medical superintendent of the Hospital for the Insane at Kankakee, and when I have said a few words I will ask him to add, if he will a statement of the results attained thus far in that hospital.

If I were a quartermaster in the U. S. army, and had to provide overcoats for a corps numbering twenty-five thousand men, and had only one hundred thousand dollars at my disposal, with which to purchase the overcoats, it needs little reflection to see that I could not pay for these overcoats more than four dollars apiece. But I can imagine myself going down to some city or town where overcoats are manufactured and sold at wholesale, and I can fancy the salesmen of some great establishment showing me first a four dollar overcoat, and then one for six dollars, and saying, "This is much better than that;" and then one for eight dollars, and then for ten dollars, which would be better still. I could not dispute that. But suppose he should persuade me to order overcoats at ten dollars each, what would be the result? With my hundred thousand dollars I could only buy ten thousand coats, and then my money would be exhausted. If I should take these ten thousand coats to the army and distribute them among the twenty-five thousand soldiers, ten thousand of them would be well supplied, but fifteen thousand, or more than half of them, would have no overcoats at all; and this because I listened to the man who said that a ten dollar

coat is better than one at four dollars. I would be the cause of fifteen thousand men sleeping on the ground in the winter, without any protection against the cold and sleet and frost.

This homely illustration may show us the nature of the problem which we have to solve, when we are asked: What shall we do with our insane?

To answer this question we must first ascertain how many insane we have to provide for; and then how much money we have with which to make provision for them; and finally, how to spend the limited amount of money at our disposal to the best advantage.

The number of the insane in this country is far greater than any one has been prepared to believe. I cannot yet give you the exact figures, but they will not fall far below one hundred thousand. We have more to care for than legislatures, or even the superintendents of hospitals and asylums for the insane have ever supposed. The present census will show about two and a half times as many as were reported in 1870.

Now, how much money have we to spend upon them? All the money in the United States, if we choose to spend it in that way. But we have a great many other uses for our money. We have to develop the internal resources of the country, to build railroads, to open mines, to reclaim waste land, to grow cities. We have to maintain the government, the churches, and our public school system. We have to care for our paupers, and to maintain our establishments for criminals, and to educate our deaf mutes and our blind, and to support our destitute and homeless children. There is no end to the demands for money or the uses to which it can be put. We cannot spend upon our insane any more money than our legislatures are willing to appropriate. How difficult it is to obtain grants of money from legislatures for this purpose! It is almost impossible to bring them to anything like a realizing sense of the needs of the insane, and harder still to impress county boards, and possibly the hardest of all to move the authorities of towns; but I do not know so much about them.

But with this immense number of insane to be cared for, and

this limited fund for their benefit, what is to be done? What are we doing? We build hospitals and asylums at a per capita cost of twelve, fifteen, eighteen hundred dollars; and in some instances of three or four thousand dollars, a bed. What is this but buying ten dollar overcoats, when we ought to buy coats at four dollars? We take care of a portion of the insane in a truly admirable manner, in comfort and even in elegance, while the great majority of them are still in poorhouses, in county jails, in private houses, or wandering aimlessly over the country. Strive as we may, instead of overtaking and meeting the demand for increased accommodations for the insane, we are perpetually falling behind. There are probably more insane persons uncared for, who require care, in the United States today, than there were twenty-five or thirty years ago.

This is a view of the question which is constantly taking deeper hold upon the minds of men. The superintendents of our institutions for the insane are beginning to awaken to the fact that the world does move, and that we must move with it; that as circumstances change, our modes of action must change also. They are coming, one by one, to favor the abandonment of our present system of costly buildings, and to advocate the construction of cheaper ones. Within the next quarter of a century they may even formulate a "proposition" in favor of progress. Here and there they are trying isolated experiments. At Middleton, Connecticut, a detached building upon a cheaper plan, has been erected, to contain three hundred patients. At the Government Hospital in Washington, Dr. Godding has built two detached wards, one of which, for his farm laborers, is extremely simple. In our own state, at Anna, the burning of one wing forced us to try the experiment of the simplest possible form of barracks, for temporary use, and we have been surprised and delighted to see the result. But it is at Kankakee that we are experimenting most thoroughly and in the truest scientific spirit, to see what can be done. I have drawn upon the board a little sketch of the general arrangement of the Kankakee grounds and buildings.

In the foreground you may note what we call our "close"

asylum, or "hospital proper," with a center building and wings, constructed after the orthodox pattern. But instead of continuing to extend our wings in either direction, as is usual, indefinitely, we have stopped their growth by laying out a street or avenue at each end of the hospital, which the wings cannot cross. We do not believe in covering the entire globe with wings built upon precisely the same model, so that, as we were told to-day at Mendota, "You need not go up stairs unless you want to, for the story above is just like the lower one." At a right angle with the line of the hospital building, you see the line of the domestic buildings, separating the male from the female side of the institution — past the kitchen and bakery, then the engine house, the boiler house, the coal house, then an open space for an ice house and cold store house, and last of all the "administration" building. This last is the central office for the transaction of business, and we have placed it as far away from the hospital proper as we could get it, intending by this to emphasize the separation of the medical from the financial administration of the institution. But although we desire to separate these functions, we do not mean to have a double-headed arrangement, with a medical man in charge of the hospitals, and a non-medical man, with independent authority, in charge of its business affairs, because we do not believe in organizing a house divided against itself. We intend having a single head, and that a physician; but we mean to recognize the fact that the business administration must absorb the bulk of his time and energies, and that the direct charge of the patients must be entrusted to subordinates, who should be his equals and not his inferiors in medical skill, attainments and experience. Next, I call your attention to the street, or avenue (with sidewalks on each side, lined with shade trees and underlaid with gas and water mains, and with a common sewer), which runs around the premises on three sides; also to the lots laid out on either side of this avenue, as if for sale to a purchaser. Any one of these lots may be devoted by the institution to any purpose; but so long as the arrangement of lots is adhered to there can be no adding one building to another at

hap-hazard, as is so often done, marring the symmetry and beauty, if not the convenience, of the entire establishment. Our lots are designed for detached buildings, some of which have already been erected, and the plans for others have been prepared. Instead of making these detached buildings all alike, we intend that they shall be all different. Then, if a patient, for any reason, does not fancy the one to which he is assigned, he may like to live in some other, the arrangement of which suits him better. We intend that different buildings shall serve different purposes, and that each building shall be adapted to the use to which it is put. Throughout the entire design runs the idea of the removal of every unnecessary restriction upon the liberty of the patient, the securing of the largest possible amount of air and sunshine, and the fullest possible employment of every patient in useful, productive labor. No patient is to be subjected to any more restraint than that particular patient requires for his own good and the safety of others; and that restraint is to be applied, not to the mass, in the form of a building, but to individuals, by the direct intervention and authority of the medical officer, who prescribes the amount and form of restraint in each case, just as he would prescribe the ingredients of a pill or the number of grains in a dose of medicine. If any patient is competent to go to work, let him do so. We do not propose to employ attendants to sit or stand idly by and lord it over patients; but to work with them and to be responsible for their work, as well as for their persons. You cannot have liberty without labor. Useful occupation is better than amusement. We do not anticipate much difficulty in getting even the insane to obey the rules laid down for them, when these rules are suited to their condition, and to their tendencies. Moderate indulgence, even in insane propensities, is not always harmful, and may be, in some instances, beneficial. As to bars and bolts, some of these houses have no bars on the windows, above or below stairs; every inmate is on his parole, and given almost unrestricted personal freedom. In other houses we may have bars on all the windows or only on a part. In a word, we do what we please. When we build an

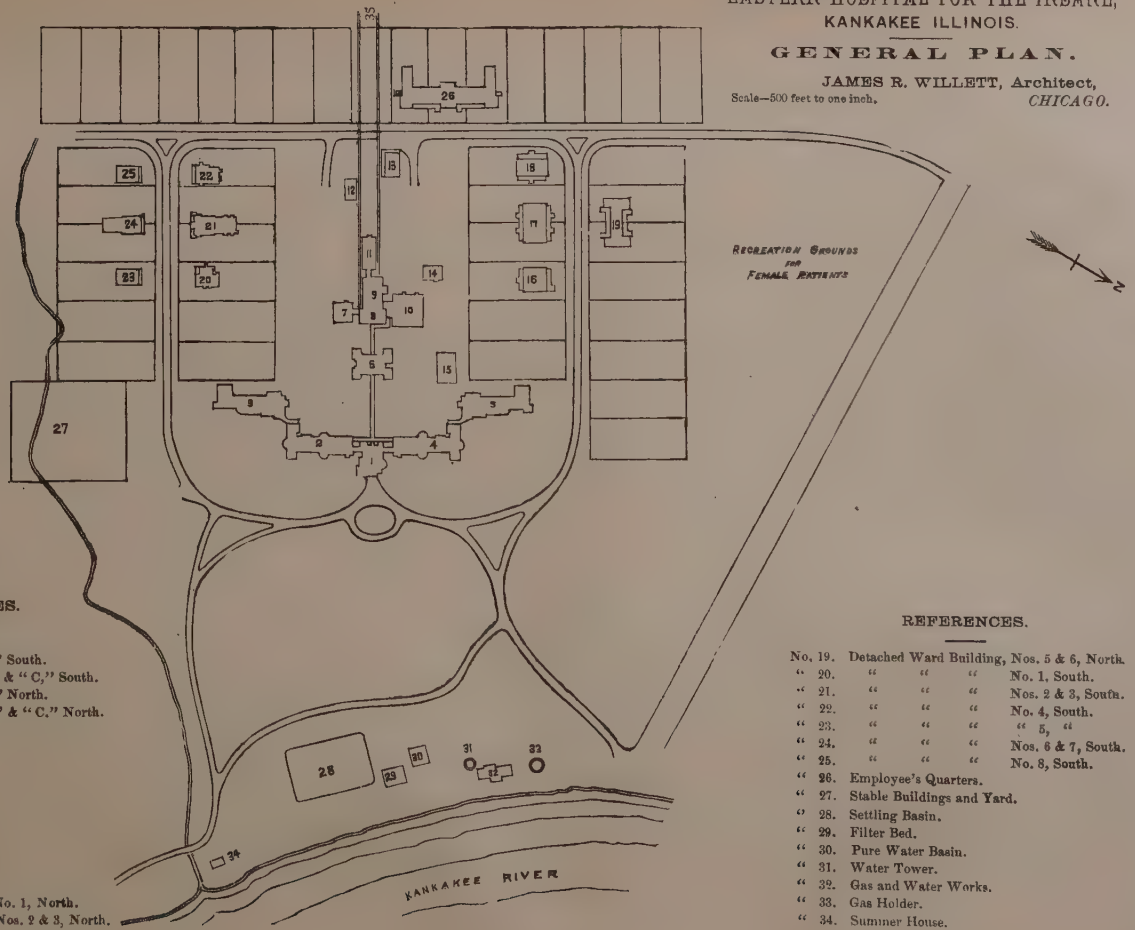
EASTERN HOSPITAL FOR THE INSANE,

KANKAKEE ILLINOIS.

GENERAL PLAN.

JAMES R. WILLETT, Architect,
CHICAGO.

Scale—500 feet to one inch.



REFERENCES.

No. 1. Center Building.
" 2. Main Ward Building "A," South.
" 3. " " " "B" & "C," South.
" 4. " " " "A," North.
" 5. " " " "B" & "C." North.
" 6. Kitchen.
" 7. Shop.
" 8. Engine Room.
" 9. Boiler House.
" 10. Laundry.
" 11. Coal House.
" 12 Refrigerator.
" 13. Store House.
" 14. Bath House.
" 15. Amusement Hall.
" 16. Detached Ward Building, No. 1, North.
" 17. " " " Nos. 2 & 3, North.
" 18. " " " No. 4, North.

REFERENCES.

No. 19. Detached Ward Building, Nos. 5 & 6, North.
" 20. " " " No. 1, South.
" 21. " " " Nos. 2 & 3, South.
" 22. " " " No. 4, South.
" 23. " " " " 5, "
" 24. " " " Nos. 6 & 7, South.
" 25. " " " No. 8, South.
" 26. Employee's Quarters.
" 27. Stable Buildings and Yard.
" 28. Settling Basin.
" 29. Filter Bed.
" 30. Pure Water Basin.
" 31. Water Tower.
" 32. Gas and Water Works.
" 33. Gas Holder.
" 34. Summer House.
" 35. Railroad Tracks.

addition we build just such an addition as we require, without reference to anything that we have done or that anyone else has done. We expect to adapt our buildings to our patients, instead of forcing our patients to adapt themselves to the buildings.

All theoretical objections to this plan of organization and construction vanish into the air before the test of actual experiment. We thought at first that patients might not be willing to go into these buildings and sleep in large associated dormitories; but they were. We thought that more accidents might occur in these detached wards; but they do not. We thought that patients might run away; some have run away, but they have been not from the detached wards, but from the "close" hospital proper, patients who were not on parole, but out for a walk under the care of attendants. We thought that the detached wards might cost more for construction than an ordinary hospital; but they have cost us only three hundred dollars a bed, while the wings of the hospital proper have cost nine hundred dollars a bed. We thought that they might prove more expensive to maintain; but they are not.

But I will not detain you. We are, of course, in the edge of the experiment, as yet, and do not know what may be before us, as we proceed with it. It is, however, certainly worthy of your attention and careful consideration.

I give way to Dr. Dewey, who will state what has been his experience as the administrative officer of the new hospital; and I am sure that he will be glad to answer any questions which any of you may be disposed to ask him.

Dr. R. S. Dewey, Illinois: I will speak of the advantages of detached wards, and will be ready to answer any questions which may be asked after I have mentioned these.

The first thing is the increased amount of liberty enjoyed, without detriment to the patients, or to others. The second is employment, which we are able to secure for a much larger number of patients than we were able to in the other buildings, or than is generally secured for patients in institutions of this kind. And finally, the improved health, mentally and physically, of the patients in these buildings.

The wards spoken of which are already in use, consist of groups of three buildings. The middle one is divided into two halves, so that we have four wards in the three buildings. The rear of the middle one consists of a large dining room for all of the patients in these three buildings, three times a day. The food is brought from the central kitchen on a two-wheeled car by the patients themselves. A good many of them take a good deal of pleasure in performing this duty. It was supposed we would have a great deal of difficulty in getting the food to the patients in good shape, but by having a warming oven at the building we found these difficulties obviated, and it comes to this building and is served in as good shape as to those in the close hospital.

Two of these buildings are open, one not kept locked, and the patients go out and in as they please. The other two are closed up, but are not provided with iron window guards. Any one could go out at any time by breaking a pane of glass, but no such thing has happened, and during the two years we have occupied them there has not been a case of a patient breaking out, and the number of escapes has been very small. Some have escaped from attendants, owing to a lack of vigilance on their part; but the number has been constantly diminishing. I cannot give the exact figures, as I had not expected to say anything; but during the first six months there were perhaps fourteen to sixteen patients who wandered away temporarily, but most of them were away for only a few hours. In the last ten months there were only four or five, and they remained with friends at their request, or were returned by the attendants sent out. There have been no casualties by way of escapes, or among the patients themselves. The great majority of them sleep in large dormitories that will accommodate from six to fifteen, and they seem to get along perfectly well. There has never been any trouble or difficulty between the patients in the dormitories, nor between the attendants and the patients. The patients seem to get along better with the attendants in these buildings. One reason is that they are employed to such a large extent, more than seventy out of a hundred being regu-

larly employed, and the others are employed to a greater or less extent. In fact, some of them become so fond of their work that they go out on Sunday, and we have found it necessary to bring them in sometimes. They will go to work in the garden, or shoveling coal out of the cars, or something else. Finally, the condition of their health is exceedingly good. Those sent to these places are those who are not dangerous. Most of them are chronic cases and have settled into such a condition that they will remain there perhaps the most of the rest of their lives, but need no great amount of restraint.

The cases in which benefit has been obtained are quite numerous. In appearance they are all quite ruddy, have excellent appetites, and seem to feel at home there, and those who were very discontented in the close asylum don't appear to be there. Some talk about running away, but they don't do it. One man was an exceedingly disagreeable and troublesome patient, a native of Ireland; he was quite violent; he was noisy and created a great deal of excitement. I sent him to a detached ward and he didn't get along very well. He was there a week or ten days and didn't seem to want to work. We made a second trial with him and he has now become very quiet and docile and is a useful man, keeping a large amount of lawn in shape with a mower. Once in two or three weeks he has a poor spell when he goes to his room and has it out to himself. He gets over it soon and then he comes out again to work and is very much improved.

Question. How many patients have you?

Answer. About three hundred; about one hundred in the detached wards. We have three more buildings nearly ready for occupation of the same class. I think the proportion is larger than I supposed it would be, but now I have no doubt but that fifty to sixty per cent. of the patients could be accommodated in buildings of that class, and the amount of restraint could be graduated according to their condition.

Question. Can you give us a plan of one of those detached buildings?

Answer. Yes. (Makes a sketch or plan on the blackboard.)

This is a building we have found very useful for a certain number of convalescent patients. We find it valuable for them to go to this building before they return home. It aids them very much in their recovery and fitting them for going home. There is a large day room which they occupy during the day time and the evenings. Here is a single room and there are two more of these attendant's rooms. Here is a clothes-room, and a bath-room here. The building up-stairs is divided into four large dormitories, and it has four more single rooms up above. The stairs should be open here. The whole building will accommodate about thirty-five patients.

Question. How many attendants are employed in that building?

Answer. We have only had one for a great portion of the time, because the patients take care of themselves mostly. They are at work, a good many of them, and others are convalescent. The hall is a place where they can sit. The other buildings are much plainer than this. They consist of a middle building something of this form: this is the dining room for all the patients; the entrance is on the east side, and that is the front of the building. It is divided into halves. This is a large day-room with entrance here. Here is a lavatory; the stairs are here. The other building would be just like it.

Question. What is the size of the building?

Answer. It is about eighty feet in its greatest length, with about sixty feet front.

Question. What is its cost?

Answer. The cost of the three buildings put up is about $30,000. I don't know as I could state now the exact cost of each building. One building will accommodate about thirty-five; another about twenty-two in each half, or forty-four in the whole, and the third building has twenty-six beds. They cost about $10,000 a piece. They are two stories high, built with limestone, with ordinary doors and windows, and wooden blinds outside with the ordinary catch on them. In two of these buildings the windows will not raise beyond a screw stop in the frame of the window so that they can be raised only about six

inches, because many of the patients would jump out of the windows if they could be raised clear up, instead of taking the trouble of going around through the doors. In one of the buildings we have a day room, and in one of the dormitories we have a wire netting screen.

Question. What is the average number of attendants to the patients?

Answer. There is about one attendant to ten patients. There are about eleven attendants to 111 or 112 patients. We have only one supervisor on the outside.

Question. Does it require any more attendants for the detached buildings than the close buildings?

Answer. No, I don't think it would do so, but in order to get the full amount of employment it takes more to go out with them and take care of them and work them. The building is warmed by a steam radiator.

Question. Does that also come within the $30,000 expenses?

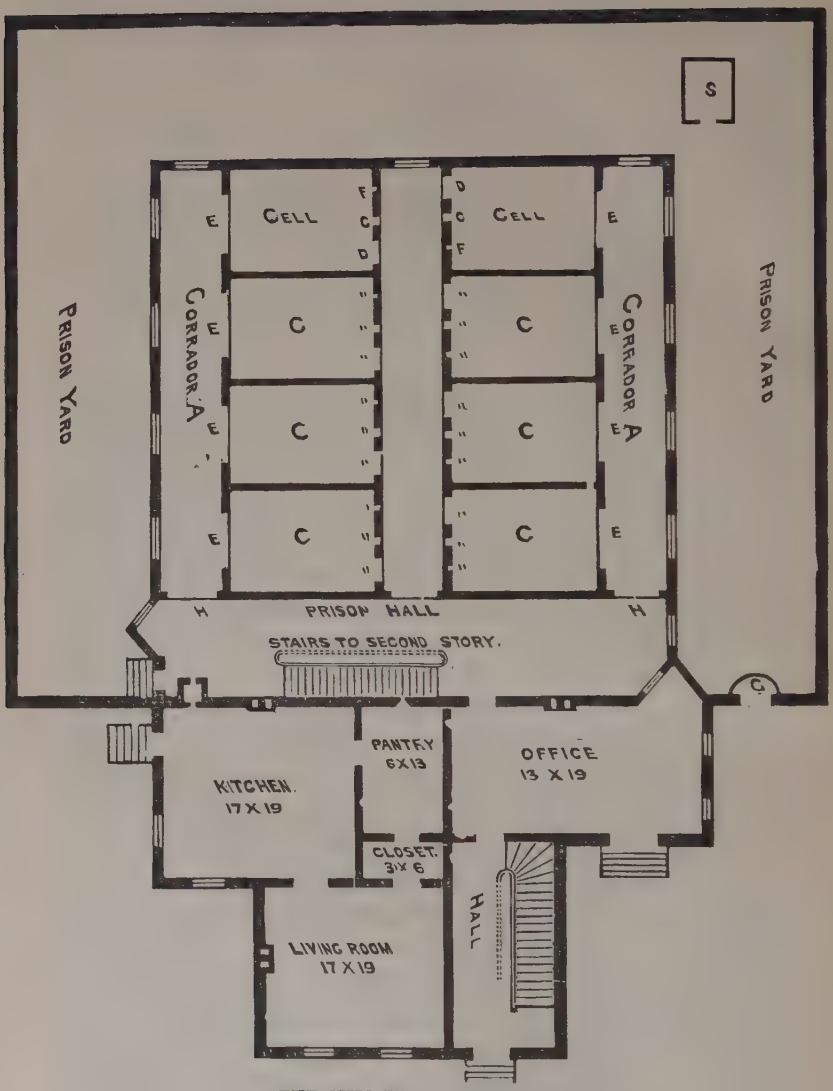
Answer. A part of that was in work and some part was paid for out of other funds. The gas and water and sewers all run together along here in front of these buildings, towards the river, just as it would be in the city, and the buildings are provided with mains as they would be in a city.

Question. Do you consider it a good plan to run the sewer and water pipes along together?

Answer. They are not very closely together; the sewer pipes are some little distance away, and there is probably a foot to eighteen inches of earth between them.

Prof. A. O. Wright, Wisconsin, called attention to plans of county insane asylums on the table, which could be examined by members at their leisure.

A. G. Byers, Ohio: (Shows a plan of a jail.) This plan contemplates two stories. A jailor's corridor is on the outside of the tier of cells. The windows are so placed as to be opposite the cells. There are solid walls at the partition so that two cells will not open close together, and yet will get sufficient light. The idea is that the prisoners should have in this jail air, light and whatever is necessary for their comfort and



THE OHIO PLAN FOR A JAIL.

safety. It is so arranged that a prisoner may be put in this first cell and each cell may be subsequently filled and occupied without the prisoners' knowing that any other person is in the jail. The idea is that a jail should be simply a house of detention, not a penal institution, and that persons convicted of minor offenses should be placed in a work-house. In Ohio it is costing us nearly $100,000 annually for boarding men in the county jails, with all their vile associations and demoralizing influences, where they are herded together as is usual. We are trying to create a public sentiment that will warrant and demand that a separation be made among the prisoners. Last year the jailor succeeded in making a complete separation of the prisoners, and it is the plan that they shall be kept separate at all times in this jail. It provides for their comfort, and as the result of the experiment, the jailor himself, though he was rather slow in doing so, has now come to the conclusion that this ought to be done in every jail in the state, and is really the only way to have a jail made comfortable and kept so. The cells are of iron, 7x9 feet, and from eight to ten feet high. The middle corridor is simply an entrance to the cells and is never to be occupied by the prisoners. If exercise is needful it can be taken in this middle corridor. The great objection to this plan was that the separation would prevent exercise and impair health, but we have a jail where this can be secured. The public sentiment in one county demanded that these men in jail should have exercise. Here in the middle of the corridor are three large tables, and when, at 11 o'clock, the attendant goes in to give them exercise he unlocks the doors and they rush for the card tables. First come, first served, and they have their games, and the rest stand around to see how the game goes without being able to take a part in it. That is the exercise they take.

Question. Can the prisoners communicate across the corridor with each other?

Answer. No. They are solid doors. This cell may be occupied and all the other cells may be filled without this prisoner seeing them at all. They can communicate across by voice without seeing each other, but they can't recognize each other

in the jail. In the upper story is the same division. We have provided a padded cell in case of insanity. And here is a room for a hospital, an arrangement that should be in every large jail. The Dayton jail is of that kind and three stories, but the public sentiment stands in the way of separation as yet. In that jail an arrangement is made for juvenile offenders and for females. None coming in there need come in contact with others.

Question. Can the upper story telegraph down to the next story?

Answer. No.

Question. Can they not out of the window, in that way?

Answer. No. The prisoner has no access to the window. The plan is for protection from the outside and from the inside without interfering with the proper circulation of the air. The pipes for heating are distinct from each other.

The speaker explained at length the arrangement of water pipes for supplying the prisoners, the waste pipes and means of ventilation.

Question. Is it intended that the windows shall not let in any air at all?

Answer. They are like other windows, they are made to raise and lower. We use the best methods for ventilation and to provide for the removal of bad air.

Question. Do you have boys in jail now?

Answer. Any number of them.

F. B. SANBORN, Massachusetts: You recollect at the Conference, at Boston, last year, that they found a boy in jail and it resulted in a law so that it is impossible to get a boy in jail in Massachusetts now.

A. G. BYERS, Ohio: We hope to follow suit to Massachusetts. The idea is the separation of the prisoners, and doing it without hurt to the prisoners.

GEN. BRINKERHOFF, Ohio, showed the plan of another jail.

FRIDAY.

Friday morning and afternoon was devoted to a visit to the Wisconsin Industrial School for Boys, at Waukesha, and the Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls, at Milwaukee.

A special train was provided by the courtesy of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railroad, which conveyed the members of the Conference, free, on this occasion.

At the Wisconsin Industrial School for Boys dinner was provided by the State Board of Supervision, and an address was made by Col. G. W. Burchard, President of the Board, explaining its management. The buildings, which are upon the cottage plan, and so far as possible the family system of government, and the industrial and the educational work were shown in actual operation.

In Milwaukee the members of the Conference were taken around the city in conveyances provided by the Industrial School for Girls, and then to the Institution, where, after inspecting the building and the various industrial departments in actual operation, the whole school, with the visiting body, were gathered together in the chapel and a brief historical account of the institution was given by Mrs. W. P. Lynde, President of the Board of Managers, followed by addresses by Mr. J. H. Mills, of Oxford, N. C., and Mr. Z. R. Brockway, of Elmira, N. Y., after which a lunch, prepared and served by the girls, was partaken of by all.

The Conference then proceeded to Plymouth Church, Milwaukee, for the closing session.

CLOSING SESSION.

FRIDAY EVENING, August 12, 1882.

The Conference met in Plymouth Church, Milwaukee.

Rev. G. E. Gordon, from the Committee on the Organization of Charities in Cities, presented a paper entitled, "Charity Organization, a New Philosophy of Philanthropy."*

C. B. LOCKWOOD, Ohio: It seems to me well to give some experience justifying what has been said in the paper read, because I think it will be helpful to those who think of organizing for this work.

Some years ago my attention was called, in our city, to the fact of the immense expenditures in this direction. The committee of the Infirmary (i. e. Poorhouse) came to the city council and asked for $25,000 to get through the winter with. As Chairman of the Committee of Appropriations, I made inquiries and found that they had already expended $115,000 for what was called "out-door relief," and they wanted this $25,000 more. We investigated as to the manner in which it had been expended, and found that it had been done without any organization more than that a councilman would give orders on this fund in favor of parties in his ward, and that, practically, councilmen had been elected year after year on these orders in their respective wards. There was no question about it. It was evident that the expenditure of a large portion of this money was worse than useless. There were large numbers of people who would not lay up anything for winter because they had learned to expect that when winter came they would get support in this way. We called a meeting of the board and discussed this matter. They said, after some talk, "What do you propose to do about it?" We said we should place some reliable man in the infirmary office to take the names of all applicants for aid, and should make a business of going to the houses of

* The Secretary has been unable to obtain a copy of this interesting paper for publication.

these parties and investigating their condition and whether they are proper objects of charity. They said that was their business and they should not allow us to do it. We said, "Very well; go on, but this commission is to know the facts, and you can do one thing or the other; you can let us put a person in there who is acceptable to you, or we will take other measures to show the enormity of the unnecessary expenditures for these purposes. They finally consented to putting a man in there, and we conclusively showed that more than one-half of the people receiving public aid were not entitled to it. The result was we revolutionized the thing, and the "out-door relief" last year was about $25,000, and in a very much more practical method, and the deserving poor were better cared for than under the old system, and there was no one in the city deserving aid that needed to suffer.

In a money point of view see what we accomplished. We changed the annual expenditure from $125,000 down to $25,000, and we are certainly doing better for those who need aid than under the old plan. Before we adopted this plan our streets and our business places were frequented by those begging and who lived in our city, but now if there is begging it is by strangers in the city who do not understand our way of dealing with them. We exhorted our citizens not to give to any one begging but to send them to the central office. For three years now we have taken no collections because the necessary means has been obtained from other sources. We have spent $7,000 to $8,000 in what we call "special relief work," and we have an income as large as needed. I speak of this from a money point of view, but the results of the work itself are worth much more than can be seen from that stand point.

We have a Bethel Home, the result of the charity organization, in which there are from forty to sixty sailors to keep them out of what are known as "Sailors' Homes." Before this it was left for the city to look after the poor and sick. This was in existence before our organization, but we have worked together satisfactorily. There has been a little feeling, or fear, expressed that this organization might come in and claim the

honor of what they had already accomplished. My own feeling is that it is a mistake that there has not been a union of the two associations.

PROF. A. O. WRIGHT, Wisconsin: We have with us several other gentlemen who are connected with work of this kind, especially Dr. Walk, of Philadelphia, whom we would be pleased to hear from.

In relation to the city of Milwaukee, from the reports coming to our office, the cost of pauperism in Milwaukee is twice as much, in proportion to the population, as the average to the whole state.

The cause of this is the laxity in administration of out-door relief. Last year the total cost of pauperism in Milwaukee County was over $50,000, of which at least $20,000 is unnecessarily expended. The system upon which out-door relief is administered here is all wrong. Each supervisor for his own town or ward can put upon the list any person he pleases, and the superintendent of the poor must give him the regular rations of wood, flour, meat and groceries, no matter how well he may know that he ought not to have that relief.

The whole matter ought to be taken out of the hands of the individual supervisors and vested in one or more persons whose sole duty it shall be to administer poor relief. There is a field for work in reducing this unnecessary and demoralizing expenditure for the newly organized Associated Charities of this city, in which they ought to have, and I think they will have, the cordial support of every intelligent citizen of Milwaukee.

W. J. SCOTT, Ohio: At this late hour I want to call attention to one simple idea which, so far as I know, is a unique thing with us in Cleveland. We found that in some directions we met with opposition because our work interfered with the making of money in certain disreputable ways. I called the attention of the board to some facts, not because they were new to me, but because they came under our observation. There were at that time quite a number of employment offices in the city, and some for girls. Girls would come in from the country

seeking employment almost every day in the year. They would drift into the employment offices, and the result would be, too often, they would fall into bad hands and would be sent to improper places without the girls knowing where they were going. I said to the board: "Can't we do something to rescue these girls from the vile wrongs committed on them?" The result was, we organized an employment bureau, not having the name of charity, and it has done a vast amount of good, and saved many girls and given them good places, and enabled families wanting help to get it better than ever before.

We called the attention of ladies who employed servants in any capacity to our office, and asked those desiring servants to register their names, their residence, what sort of servants they wanted and to contribute one dollar. In this, I think, we made a mistake, as I think we could have got just as many names if we had asked two dollars. Girls coming to the office seeking employment were required to pay a quarter of a dollar and we were to find them places according to what they could do. We took the precaution to register them, where they had been, what their characters had been, where they came from, and other matters, so that we had a pretty good history of every one who came in to register. Then, when an application came, we sent a nice, active, intelligent lady to the place where the girl was to go, if we were not properly acquainted with the people. Then when a girl is sent to a place we always send a note to the house-keeper asking that, if the girl leaves the service, or is discharged, or does not perform her duty well, to notify the office. This twenty-five cents that is paid in by the girls is put in the girls' bank account so that if one of our girls are taken sick, is unable to work or stay in her place, we put her in the hospital where she has the best of attention and pay for treatment as long as she may be there. We now have $200 to our credit in this fund, and have spent some money for the purpose indicated. We have also driven out of town the disreputable employment offices which formerly found these girls an easy prey, and this employment arrangement of ours has done a vast amount of good in preserving the good character

and purity of many girls who come to our city to seek employment.

On the suggestion of the President, the Conference was, for a short time, devoted to

REMARKS ON GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

J. H. Mills, North Carolina: I am not able to express to the members of this Conference the pleasure and enjoyment I have had during this conference. I am very glad that I came, and am very sorry that no other one came from our state.

When the proceedings of this conference are published I want them to use in our state, with our public men, to work up a sentiment in this direction.

In addition to the building we are now occupying, we have nearly finished another which will accommodate about two hundred, which will be occupied in about a month. Then I shall have some leisure, when I intend to see what can be done in the way of organizing a State Board of Public Charities. We also need a House of Refuge for deserted children and a School for Feeble Minded Children, and other work of this character that ought to be done.

I find that the manner of the first presentation of such a subject makes a great difference with people, and I am glad that I have been able to be here and gain new ideas which will enable me to present this matter to our people.

A large number of people come to North Carolina to spend the winters, or to hunt; others come there as invalids. In one of our little towns there are two large hotels where there are people from the north who come to investigate our mines. If any of you should come down that way, drop me a postal card a few days beforehand at Oxford, and it will reach me, and rest assured I shall be pleased to meet any one of you and try and make your visit as pleasant and profitable as I feel gratified in this Conference which has for its object to benefit mankind. I told you I could not express my feelings on the subject, but I ask the Lord to carry me safely back and make me a thousand times more useful to the state than I have ever been before.

Z. R. Brockway, New York: My memory goes back to the first association to consider public charities and corrections I ever attended, at Cincinnati, in 1870. From that I derived inspiration and impulses that have not left me yet. For some time I attended these conferences and associations, but latterly I could not attend. This year, by a special providence, as it seems to me, I have been able to come to Madison. Now I am able to put the impressions of nine years ago with those of this Conference and the impressions of to-day. I supposed, that by reason of not having given so much attention to the subject of charities generally, as to my own special department, that I was falling behind a little, though I tried to keep abreast of the times on the subject of public charities, but my first impression when I got to Madison was that I was an old fogy and behind the times, and I was surprised and delighted with the progress of ideas on this subject since I have attended your meetings. But I have been receiving new ideas and new inspirations during the last few days, and mean to keep abreast of the times hereafter by attending these conferences. I shall return to my home and my labors with a deep affection for the whole company of this Conference, and also for the noble men and women of the great northwest who are engaged in this grand work. We have cause to feel thankful for what has been already accomplished, and it is an incentive to continue in the good work and to plant these institutions in all the states, which shall do good to humanity and the nation for all time. Friends, good-bye.

Dr. J. W. Walk, Pennsylvania: I would make a few suggestions in relation to associated charities — a few words of caution. We need the friendship of all. Perhaps this is the first danger facing us — our self-complacency. We feel that we have a new idea and we forget that others may have ideas and plans that may also be successful, and that their opinions and methods are entitled to the same respect as ours, and so we may drive them away instead of bringing them over to work with us. We need the aid of all. Some may not be as active and efficient as we would like to have them, but it is better to have

them as friends and bear with them than drive them away, though it may take months or years for them to become efficient workers, because, if once estranged and driven away from us, it will be almost impossible to bring them back again. This is true of other societies in our cities. We should try to get them to act with us in this matter.

Another thing we should be careful about is relief work — in the relief of the poor in charitable organizations. That is the pit-fall in which charity organizations are almost sure to fall, as it is almost impossible to hold ourselves back from giving in a manner that leads to bad results. The society that begins by placing itself in a bad position in this respect, will embarass itself for years.

The third caution I would give is that of employing a new agency to do a certain kind of work rather than relying on the old agency which could be better used for the purpose. As an example, some of my friends in Philadelphia started an infant asylum because the others would not take them. The result was that in six months it was full and they were just as helpless as anybody else. They did not accomplish in that way what they expected to. Now, if half of the energy of faith and hope and love and prayer and means that went to start that new asylum had been given to an old asylum it would have made it a good institution and enabled it to do its work better and accomplish more good than two poorly supported institutions. So it is inadvisable to start a new institution as long as the work can be done by an older one. Our experience leads to these conclusions: Don't try to start too many institutions, nor drive off those who ought to be your friends.

Rev. G. E. Gordon, Wisconsin: There are many persons who ought to be engaged in this work of relief and charity who do not live in large cities. This work has been organized and carried on as successfully in some of the smaller towns as in the larger cities, and more good done in proportion to the population. There are many who could be interested and would be glad to engage in this work, but they lack experience and organization. I hope some one who does not live in a large town

will go home from here and organize a home society, and do for the town what these societies do for the large cities. And those in towns who desire to organize and do effective work could do so by corresponding with the larger societies and learning their organization, methods of work, etc., and it would be well for the members of this Conference to assist in such good work as far as possible, as I feel sure every one would be glad to do so.

THE PRESIDENT: I have in view the President of this Conference whose term of office begins when mine expires, the Rev. Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois. He has not yet made his acknowledgements to this Conference. I made his acquaintance eleven years ago. We have traveled together all around this state and in Illinois. I have met him frequently and know him well. After I had been acquainted with him some two years, as we were riding together one day I said to him: "Fred, what sort of a preacher are you? You are called Rev. Fred. H. Wines, now what kind of a preacher are you anyway?" He looked somewhat surprised and astonished, and, after recovering sufficiently, he said: "I am a regular orthodox Presbyterian preacher." "You are, eh?" He looked then more solemn and severe than ever I had known him before. He said: "Mr. Elmore, have you ever known of my doing or saying anything contrary to my profession and character as a Christian and a gentleman?" I sat and studied for a while, overhauled my recollection, and finallly was forced to say: "N-o, I n-e-v-e-r did, but I have expected every minute you would!" (Laughter.) Whereupon he laughed heartily, but to this day I can't tell whether the joke was on him or on me. (Laughter.)

I now call on him to come forward and show himself. Please step forward Brother Wines, I want to introduce you to this Conference. Ladies and gentlemen, he is a man I love. I have never known him to say or do anything bad, if I did expect he would at times. (Laughter.) There is no man living I respect more than my friend whom I now have the pleasure of introducing to you as your next President, Rev. Fred. H. Wines.

FRED. H. WINES, Illinois: *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:* If I do not find words to make a proper acknowledgment of the honor conferred upon me, it is not because I am not deeply gratified by this mark of your confidence. Our President has already avowed an affection for me, to-night, in such a peculiar manner, that I hardly know how to respond to him; but he knows, as well as I do, that he does not love me one bit better than I love him; and I don't suppose that I love Brother Elmore any better than I do the rest of you. (Laughter). And I have every reason to: first, because of so many personal kindnesses from one and another of the members of this Conference; and second, because, if you did not care for me at all, I should feel that neither in the United States nor in any other country can there be found a nobler, truer set of men and women. After what has been said, I fear that I shall hardly meet your expectations, but I shall do the best I can. I cannot do less; I can hardly promise more. (Applause).

We have enjoyed this meeting in Wisconsin. We have had a grand reception, and have been delighted with the people we met. Next year, we expect to receive in Kentucky an old-fashioned Kentucky welcome, and to enjoy our visit to that state equally well. One reason why we wanted to go to Louisville, or to St. Louis, or to some other southern city, is that we are anxious to interest the southern states in our purposes, aims and methods of work. We have been especially glad, at this session of the Conference, to have with us so many representatives from these states. Among them all, no one has made a deeper impression upon our minds than the gentleman from North Carolina. At our next session, we hope to have every southern state represented; and we expect our southern friends who are here to go home and report to their friends how we feel toward them, and our desire that they should unite with us and do all in their power to aid us in the great object which we have in view and which lies so near our hearts. This is a truly national Conference; and it is growing in scope and in power from year to year.

Its growth has been steady, from the moment of its organiza-

tion. We have never had so large an attendance, nor so great local interest in our meetings, as this year. We have never had a session when we have had so many experienced students of the questions which interest us, whose remarks are measurably free from the crudity which characterizes the novice in charitable work. What an attendance, too, we have had of men of distinction! — a Jewish rabbi, two Roman Catholic priests and three bishops of the Protestant Episcopal church; two governors of states, five or six judges of supreme courts, several ex-governors — I cannot enumerate them all.

To my mind, this Conference is a beautiful illustration of the power of practical work in behalf of suffering humanity to fuse and weld human hearts and bind them to each other. We are here united in one common object. We may have been but slightly acquainted; we have come from different states of the country; our circumstances, occupations and surroundings have been different; we are of different shades of political and religious thought—but here we have sat, day after day, side by side, devising means for lifting up our fellow-men and making them happier and better, without one word of rivalry or jealousy or dissension. Nothing has occurred to mar the harmony of our meeting; but our thoughts and plans and purposes have flowed together, and flowed onward like the streams from the mountains which unite in one grand, majestic river. I do not believe that you could crowd any church on earth with more love and unity and self-sacrifice than has been shown in this Conference. It has been a delight to be here. Not one of us would give up this Conference for anything on earth, nor willingly be absent from a single meeting. This feeling will grow and become stronger in us all. It will spread. Our association is destined to become a great power for good in the United States, an organizing force, a teaching force, an impelling force. But we must keep it free from self-seeking. We must not allow it to be used as a tool for the accomplishment of any selfish or purely political purpose. If we keep it to its legitimate work, I think that we may predict for it a long and successful career, so that those of us who were connected with it in its infancy,

will be happy in the thought that we have contributed something to advance the welfare of the nation to which we belong, and of whose progress we have a right to be proud.

Thanking you again, and hoping that I may meet your expectations as your president for the coming year, I give way for Mr. Elmore who now has a chance to explain himself.

THE PRESIDENT: *Ladies and Gentlemen*, I thank you. We have been exceedingly well treated in this city. Milwaukee is the most beautiful city on this continent save one — Washington — and when I say so I know of what I speak. Other cities may have one beautiful street, like Cleveland with her Euclid Avenue, but while that city has one beautiful street, Milwaukee has scores of them. It is the prettiest city, I say, in America.

I hope that every member of this Conference will go to Louisville next year. We have had a grand, good meeting this year, and I hope we shall all be there next year, and have one equally good and better.

Brother Wines has already given you most of the speech that I intended to make — just as I have always expected he would do some mean thing. (Laughter.) He has told us it is the most important and interesting session of the Conference ever held, and he has told us truly. He might have said another thing, but he did not, and in that he disappointed me (as he has a great many times), and that is that this Conference has been one of the most important bodies ever associated together in America, discussing such important questions as it has, containing, as it does, so many representatives of the different classes and societies of men—three Episcopal Bishops—and we have not had a word of quarreling during the whole time (Laughter), and Methodists, and Baptists, and Unitarians, and Congregationalists, and Catholics, and Quakers, and a Jewish Rabbi — representatives of many denominations and creeds, as well as of different political parties, and not one word has been spoken about sect or party from beginning to end. It has been the most remarkable gathering of men ever held in America — continuing five days, discussing great and important questions, and the only jarring at all has been because

the President was a little arbitrary once or twice. But the time for closing has arrived.

Ladies and Gentlemen of the Conference, I thank you all from the bottom of my heart for your good will, forbearance and assistance during my term of office. In a moment we shall stand adjourned and Othello's occupation will be gone. Adjournment is now in order.

On motion, the Conference then adjourned to meet in Louisville at the call of the President and Secretaries.

will go home from here and organize a home society, and do for the town what these societies do for the large cities. And those in towns who desire to organize and do effective work could do so by corresponding with the larger societies and learning their organization, methods of work, etc., and it would be well for the members of this Conference to assist in such good work as far as possible, as I feel sure every one would be glad to do so.

THE PRESIDENT: I have in view the President of this Conference whose term of office begins when mine expires, the Rev. Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois. He has not yet made his acknowledgements to this Conference. I made his acquaintance eleven years ago. We have traveled together all around this state and in Illinois. I have met him frequently and know him well. After I had been acquainted with him some two years, as we were riding together one day I said to him: "Fred, what sort of a preacher are you? You are called Rev. Fred. H. Wines, now what kind of a preacher are you anyway?" He looked somewhat surprised and astonished, and, after recovering sufficiently, he said: "I am a regular orthodox Presbyterian preacher." "You are, eh?" He looked then more solemn and severe than ever I had known him before. He said: "Mr. Elmore, have you ever known of my doing or saying anything contrary to my profession and character as a Christian and a gentleman?" I sat and studied for a while, overhauled my recollection, and finallly was forced to say: "N-o, I n-e-v-e-r did, but I have expected every minute you would!" (Laughter.) Whereupon he laughed heartily, but to this day I can't tell whether the joke was on him or on me. (Laughter.)

I now call on him to come forward and show himself. Please step forward Brother Wines, I want to introduce you to this Conference. Ladies and gentlemen, he is a man I love. I have never known him to say or do anything bad, if I did expect he would at times. (Laughter.) There is no man living I respect more than my friend whom I now have the pleasure of introducing to you as your next President, Rev. Fred. H. Wines.

FRED. H. WINES, Illinois: *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:* If I do not find words to make a proper acknowledgment of the honor conferred upon me, it is not because I am not deeply gratified by this mark of your confidence. Our President has already avowed an affection for me, to-night, in such a peculiar manner, that I hardly know how to respond to him; but he knows, as well as I do, that he does not love me one bit better than I love him; and I don't suppose that I love Brother Elmore any better than I do the rest of you. (Laughter). And I have every reason to: first, because of so many personal kindnesses from one and another of the members of this Conference; and second, because, if you did not care for me at all, I should feel that neither in the United States nor in any other country can there be found a nobler, truer set of men and women. After what has been said, I fear that I shall hardly meet your expectations, but I shall do the best I can. I cannot do less; I can hardly promise more. (Applause).

We have enjoyed this meeting in Wisconsin. We have had a grand reception, and have been delighted with the people we met. Next year, we expect to receive in Kentucky an old-fashioned Kentucky welcome, and to enjoy our visit to that state equally well. One reason why we wanted to go to Louisville, or to St. Louis, or to some other southern city, is that we are anxious to interest the southern states in our purposes, aims and methods of work. We have been especially glad, at this session of the Conference, to have with us so many representatives from these states. Among them all, no one has made a deeper impression upon our minds than the gentleman from North Carolina. At our next session, we hope to have every southern state represented; and we expect our southern friends who are here to go home and report to their friends how we feel toward them, and our desire that they should unite with us and do all in their power to aid us in the great object which we have in view and which lies so near our hearts. This is a truly national Conference; and it is growing in scope and in power from year to year.

Its growth has been steady, from the moment of its organiza-

tion. We have never had so large an attendance, nor so great local interest in our meetings, as this year. We have never had a session when we have had so many experienced students of the questions which interest us, whose remarks are measurably free from the crudity which characterizes the novice in charitable work. What an attendance, too, we have had of men of distinction! — a Jewish rabbi, two Roman Catholic priests and three bishops of the Protestant Episcopal church; two governors of states, five or six judges of supreme courts, several ex-governors — I cannot enumerate them all.

To my mind, this Conference is a beautiful illustration of the power of practical work in behalf of suffering humanity to fuse and weld human hearts and bind them to each other. We are here united in one common object. We may have been but slightly acquainted; we have come from different states of the country; our circumstances, occupations and surroundings have been different; we are of different shades of political and religious thought—but here we have sat, day after day, side by side, devising means for lifting up our fellow-men and making them happier and better, without one word of rivalry or jealousy or dissension. Nothing has occurred to mar the harmony of our meeting; but our thoughts and plans and purposes have flowed together, and flowed onward like the streams from the mountains which unite in one grand, majestic river. I do not believe that you could crowd any church on earth with more love and unity and self-sacrifice than has been shown in this Conference. It has been a delight to be here. Not one of us would give up this Conference for anything on earth, nor willingly be absent from a single meeting. This feeling will grow and become stronger in us all. It will spread. Our association is destined to become a great power for good in the United States, an organizing force, a teaching force, an impelling force. But we must keep it free from self-seeking. We must not allow it to be used as a tool for the accomplishment of any selfish or purely political purpose. If we keep it to its legitimate work, I think that we may predict for it a long and successful career, so that those of us who were connected with it in its infancy,

will be happy in the thought that we have contributed something to advance the welfare of the nation to which we belong, and of whose progress we have a right to be proud.

Thanking you again, and hoping that I may meet your expectations as your president for the coming year, I give way for Mr. Elmore who now has a chance to explain himself.

THE PRESIDENT: *Ladies and Gentlemen*, I thank you. We have been exceedingly well treated in this city. Milwaukee is the most beautiful city on this continent save one — Washington — and when I say so I know of what I speak. Other cities may have one beautiful street, like Cleveland with her Euclid Avenue, but while that city has one beautiful street, Milwaukee has scores of them. It is the prettiest city, I say, in America.

I hope that every member of this Conference will go to Louisville next year. We have had a grand, good meeting this year, and I hope we shall all be there next year, and have one equally good and better.

Brother Wines has already given you most of the speech that I intended to make — just as I have always expected he would do some mean thing. (Laughter.) He has told us it is the most important and interesting session of the Conference ever held, and he has told us truly. He might have said another thing, but he did not, and in that he disappointed me (as he has a great many times), and that is that this Conference has been one of the most important bodies ever associated together in America, discussing such important questions as it has, containing, as it does, so many representatives of the different classes and societies of men—three Episcopal Bishops—and we have not had a word of quarreling during the whole time (Laughter), and Methodists, and Baptists, and Unitarians, and Congregationalists, and Catholics, and Quakers, and a Jewish Rabbi — representatives of many denominations and creeds, as well as of different political parties, and not one word has been spoken about sect or party from beginning to end. It has been the most remarkable gathering of men ever held in America — continuing five days, discussing great and important questions, and the only jarring at all has been because

the President was a little arbitrary once or twice. But the time for closing has arrived.

Ladies and Gentlemen of the Conference, I thank you all from the bottom of my heart for your good will, forbearance and assistance during my term of office. In a moment we shall stand adjourned and Othello's occupation will be gone. Adjournment is now in order.

On motion, the Conference then adjourned to meet in Louisville at the call of the President and Secretaries.

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